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The development of a model of initial and ongoing training for the international teacher

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A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

University of Bath

Department of Education

November 2008

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CONTENTS

Abstract

Chapter 1: Introduction	4
Chapter 2: Literature review	12
Chapter 3: Methodology	65
Chapter 4: International Teachers	82
Chapter 5: Seven domains of knowledge and skills	134
Chapter 6: Conclusions	170
Appendices:	175
(i) Survey 01	
(ii) Survey 01 Notes for surveyees	
(iii) Survey 02	
(iv) Survey 02 Spanish	
(v) Survey 02 Parents & students	
(vi) Survey 02 Notes for surveyees	
(vii) Survey 02 Letter to surveyees	
(viii) Survey 03	
(ix) Survey 03 Notes for surveyees	
(x) Survey 03 Letter to surveyees	
Bibliography	185

Abstract

International schools, loosely defined as those involving students, teachers, curricula and/or languages not from the host country, form a significant sector of education worldwide, with numbers estimated at more than three thousand and predicted to grow rapidly over the next decade. Of equal significance is their role in developing students who are internationally-minded, often explicitly included in school mission statements, and increasingly accepted as a central educational imperative rather than a desirable but peripheral option. It is generally acknowledged that teacher effectiveness has a profound influence on student learning, and it follows therefore that teachers who model international-mindedness are also an important part of the equation. Yet, as the number of international schools increases, appropriately-prepared teachers are becoming increasingly scarce.

This thesis identifies key issues facing international teachers, each well documented in literature and research, and increasingly evident in educational policy and strategy at national and international levels, yet found to be lacking in teacher preparation. It is my contention, therefore, that the substantial and systematic inclusion of these issues in initial teacher education programmes is absolutely essential and I investigate how the theoretical commitments of policy statements can be converted into practical provision of appropriate preparation for international teachers.

By considering literature and research, survey data and anecdotal evidence from the international education community, I attempt to describe (though not define) international teachers, the international nature of the education they provide to their students, and the type of preparation they need in order to do so. Based on the key issues identified, I propose seven domains of knowledge and skills deemed essential for teacher preparation, synthesised into a potential model for systematic implementation within individual schools and programmes, or within whole educational systems at state or national level.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

During my thirty years as a teacher, head of school and educational consultant, I have hired, trained, mentored and worked alongside hundreds of teaching colleagues. For twenty of these years I worked in and with international schools that aimed, and claimed, to provide an international education to their (largely) international students. In these schools, working with teachers from many different nationalities, cultures and backgrounds, I became increasingly concerned at an apparent lack of appropriate preparation for teachers teaching in these schools, a concern magnified by three underlying convictions:

- (i) that there is an educational imperative to develop students who are internationally-minded
- (ii) that teachers have a profound influence on student learning and need to model international-mindedness for their students
- (iii) that international schools have a responsibility, and often unrivalled opportunities, to help teachers and students develop such mindsets

Driven by these convictions, I have been closely involved with several initiatives to internationalise curricula and teacher education, as well as to raise general awareness of international education and international-mindedness. This thesis draws on this firsthand experience with international students, parents and teachers; schools and universities; businesses and governments; as well as on research and literature from close international colleagues; educational contemporaries generally; and educational pioneers and idealists historically. It is relevant here to recognise the University of Bath as one of these pioneers and to acknowledge the significant influence of the Centre for Education in an International Context both on the international education sector in general and on this author specifically.

This introduction will first present the rationale for the research; secondly, explain what is meant by the international education sector by defining key terms used throughout this thesis: international education, international schools, international students, international teachers and international-mindedness; and thirdly, introduce the study design and methodology used.

Research rationale

The overall rationale for the research was to investigate the perception that teachers in international schools are largely unprepared for the very specialised contexts in which they are working, with the underlying premise that better preparation would benefit not only the teachers themselves but also the school heads who recruit them and, most importantly, the students they teach.

Although it was anticipated that many of the findings might apply to teacher effectiveness generically (i.e. in national as well as international contexts) the main concern of the study was teachers in the international schools sector in which I had spent the previous twenty years. In looking at teacher preparation my primary focus was to be on initial teacher education, as, for the vast majority of teachers, this takes place within a national context, a fundamental factor in the lack of preparation for international contexts. However, to give a fuller picture, consideration would also be

given to the role of inservice training or ongoing professional development, which it was assumed might be more specifically tailored for the international context.

Assuming the underlying perception proved correct, i.e. that indeed international teachers are not adequately prepared, it was a clear aim to suggest some ways in which important elements of internationalism might be incorporated into teacher education programmes.

Defining international education

Attempts to define international education have been numerous and, as Hayden (2006) and Marshall (2007) emphasise, the term has been used to mean different things by different people at different times. Sylvester (2003) notes that 'over 30 years ago Scanlon and Shields (1968) observed a complete lack of historical studies in international education that would assist in establishing a lineage, developing a conceptual framework and eventually denoting an indicative methodology and descriptive content for international education. Little work since then on these fundamental issues is in evidence in the literature.'

Even the Dictionary of Comparative Education notes that international education is 'somewhat problematic to define' (Groux et al cited in Bray 2007, p.54). The situation is complicated further by the use of a wide range of other terms, for example, development education, world studies, comparative education, multicultural education, global education and global citizenship education, used to describe what are fundamentally variations on the same theme, and described by Hayden as overlapping parts of a Venn diagram.

As Hayden explains, the term development education has been most often used to refer to a focus on development issues in schools, usually by inclusion in existing subject areas, while the term world studies has often referred to the creation of a new course or subject strand focusing on international current affairs. Comparative education, on the other hand, has more often been used to describe a field of study (the comparison of different systems of education) rather than an aspect of classroom practice, and Bray (2007) outlines the ongoing debate in the US throughout the second half of the 20th century about the term, describing the vigour with which some educationalists have resisted (and still do resist) the blending or interchangeable use of the terms comparative and international.

The use of any of these particular terms is not only related to the specific context but also to current trends, and most of these terms have gone through different phases of growing and declining popularity. Multicultural education, for example, was a term widely used throughout the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s to refer to 'education...intended to promote dialogue between cultures and to obstruct the appearance of the phenomena of cultural intolerance' (Tedesco 1995, p.iv) and being replaced with other, arguably, more inclusive terms, in recent years. Development education is a further case in point, with one of its major exponents in the UK – Oxfam - changing to the term global citizenship education in its recent publications that support current government initiatives to encourage the inclusion of an international dimension in schools.

The inclusion of such an international dimension within national education systems is the most common definition of the term global education, and is used in this context by both Hayden and Marshall. Marshall's overview of what she calls the 'big terminology

debate' (2007, p.38), and Hayden's brief definition of the main terms (2006, pp.4-5) highlight that each has developed in a specific context with its own distinct characteristics, yet all have similar underlying concepts and common aims: namely, to develop in students an awareness and appreciation both of the world beyond their own day-to-day lives, and of their roles and responsibilities relating to that wider world. The term 'global' currently seems to be more widely used, due, I believe, largely to its more holistic evocation of the planetary context, which transcends the national contexts inherent in the term 'international'.

However, within the educational sector to which this thesis refers, 'international education' is the term most commonly used, and I thereby use it in this thesis to mean the 'global' philosophical aims of education grounded in and realized through 'international' interactions amongst students and staff of different nationalities.

Defining international schools

Parallel to the ongoing development of international education has been a growing proliferation of international schools, another term that defies simple definition. Hayden (2006) illustrates the dangers of defining international schools in anything other than very general terms, including as they do, schools that serve largely expatriate students and those that serve largely national students; those that hire largely expatriate teachers and those that hire largely local teachers; those that use an international curriculum and those that use a national curriculum...and all imaginable combinations of these and other factors. Indeed, numerous attempts by researchers to define and categorise this diverse group of schools have failed to produce consensus, for example, Pönisch (1987) identified eleven different categories, Sanderson (1981) seven, and Leach (1969) four. Matthews (1988) confined himself to two, differentiating only between schools that are market-driven and those that are ideology-driven, as did Sylvester (1998), who used two similar categories based on schools' mission statements, differentiating between schools that are internationally-minded and schools that are simply internationally-located.

Although each of these researchers provides a valuable description of some of the characteristics of international schools, attempts to categorise such complex entities are inevitably incomplete, somewhat arbitrary and therefore inconclusive. Within this thesis I resisted the temptation to be drawn into further attempts at categorisation (this is not how I wanted to spend my time, nor did I think I could improve what had gone before, however inconclusive those attempts might seem) and initially focused my research on the group of schools within which most of my own professional experience was based – those schools that are international by name.

Growing up as I did in the mono-lingual, mono-cultural north-east of England, with the only cross-border travel opportunities being to Scotland, could have had the effect of narrowing or closing the mind. Instead it fired a passion to travel the world, and absorb its exotic, seemingly infinite, variety of cultures and languages. Although, therefore, as with many people, my initial move into the education profession was serendipitous, the ability to combine it with travel has made it doubly rewarding and therefore its extension into three decades, purposeful. Equally serendipitous was my introduction to the international side of education: my first job in a small boarding school in a very parochial southern English village might seem an unlikely place to encounter internationalism, but the specialised nature of the school (residential education for physically and emotionally-damaged children) attracted a wide range of nationalities, including, in my first class, Greek, Nigerian, Chinese and Iranian. My subsequent move

to a large school in Vienna, Austria, attached to the United Nations and serving around 100 different nationalities, seemed a perfect segue into 'real' international education. To me, at this point in time, this school epitomised internationalism, and I believed that students would become more internationally-minded simply by being in close contact with one another. With further experience, however, it became increasingly apparent that such incidental proximity, although a contributory factor, was not enough to ensure international-mindedness. Indeed, proximity was the key factor in Williams' contact hypothesis (1947, cited in Nelson 2006) but as with my own experience, the hypothesis was soon shown to be too simplistic (Allport 1988), with contact alone being no guarantee of the more positive racial attitudes and interactions hoped for. This theory is considered in more detail in Chapter 2 in relation to international schools as examples of cross-cultural harmony.

Hayden (2006) emphasises that international schools cannot be considered synonymous with international education, and, as my research developed, this became increasingly apparent. I became involved with a much wider range of schools that, while not international by name, were international by nature, having one or more of the common characteristics that Hayden (2006), Hayden and Thompson (1998, 2000, 2002) and many others have described at length, namely: culturally and linguistically diverse students and/or staff; a transient school community; an international curriculum; an internationally-orientated mission. I found that many such schools were more explicitly focused on, and arguably, more effective in, developing internationally-minded students than schools with international in their name, which often seemed to take for granted that international-mindedness was an implicit outcome for their students (the incidental proximity I had also previously naively assumed). My definition of an international school therefore, both conceptually and for the specific purpose of this thesis, became broader and more inclusive, encompassing schools that are international by name and also those that are international by nature.

Defining international students and international-mindedness

As demonstrated with other terms, a common understanding of international-mindedness is evasive, and again a range of terms (mainly different formats of global or international) is used interchangeably, although with subtle differences in meaning according to the specific context. As explained earlier, I have chosen to use 'international' rather than 'global' as a base term, and, further, I have deliberately used 'internationally-minded' rather than 'international' when referring to the students we hope will be the product of an international education, as 'international' is widely used to refer simply to students from outside the host country, with no implication with regard to their resultant mindsets. While it is likely that many, even most, of the students referred to in this thesis will be 'international' in the sense of coming from outside the host country, it is their 'international-mindedness' that is the central concern of international education.

Developing students who are internationally-minded is increasingly seen as an educational imperative. Within the international schools sector, there are numerous examples of colleagues and parents who have purposefully chosen an expatriate lifestyle in order to expose their children to the richness of an international school education. Even within national systems, increasing numbers of parents are purposefully choosing international schools as an ideological alternative: a means of

giving their children a cultural and linguistic experience that contributes to their development as internationally-minded citizens.

For more than a decade George Walker, former Director General of both the International School of Geneva and the International Baccalaureate Organization, has echoed educational predecessors in passionately championing the imperative of developing internationally-minded students. In his 'To Educate the Nations' lecture (1995) he argued that, 'Education should provide young people with opportunities to gain knowledge about, and develop attitudes and values towards, major world issues' and more recently, in his Chautauqua Institution address, 'Education: for the nation or the world?' (2006), he quotes philosophers, authors and politicians across two millennia and several continents to support his case.

To refer again to Matthews' simple twofold categorisation of international schools, it is encouraging to note that although most international schools are established in response to market-demand, Walker's sentiments are often reflected in their mission statements, suggesting that market-driven and ideology-driven are not mutually exclusive. For example, The International School of Geneva, a pioneer of international education established in 1924, offers education 'that prepares pupils for membership of a world community based on mutual understanding, tolerance and shared humanitarian values' (International School of Geneva 2007); the International School of Amsterdam, established in 1964, 'exists to provide Education for International Understanding' that is 'preparing students to become enlightened world citizens' (International School of Amsterdam 2007); the New International School of Thailand, established in 1992, aims 'to inspire and empower each student to pursue individual excellence and to enrich the world' (New International School of Thailand 2007); and, more recently, established in 2004, École Mondiale World School in India aims for 'the ultimate goal of producing happy, enlightened and globally-minded citizens' developing 'international mindedness...with respect and understanding for other cultures' (École Mondiale World School 2007).

Although somewhat randomly chosen from schools with which I am familiar, these few examples are typical of many other schools' mission statements, evidence that international schools do recognise their responsibility in developing students who are internationally-minded. Furthermore, despite a plethora of definitions and lists of characteristics, skills, attitudes and attributes, there does seem to be a common understanding of the underlying concept of international-mindedness as 'possessing an ecological world view, believ(ing) in the unity of humankind and the interdependence of humanity, support(ing) universal human rights, hav(ing) loyalties that extend beyond national borders' (Hett 1993).

Defining international teachers

Given the commitment schools show to developing internationally-minded students, it should follow that they will hire teachers who are equipped to fulfil this responsibility effectively. Yet conversely, the reality seems to be that of the thousands of teachers recruited each year for international schools, most (and particularly those entering international education for the first time) have no specific preparation for it. As Greenlees reported (2006) after interviewing several heads of international schools for a Herald Tribune article, 'there are lots of teachers out there, but not many that are ready to teach in the international classroom.' While this lack of preparation can lead to creativity and resourcefulness on the part of the teachers, it often means they are unable

to optimise the experience for either themselves or their students, and in worst-case scenarios it can cause them to leave international education prematurely, disappointed and disillusioned.

This thesis looks in detail at who these international teachers are; where they are from; what motivates them to teach internationally; and how well their teacher education programmes have prepared them for their international assignments.

As Hayden observes, 'Given the diversity of schools operating under the 'international school' umbrella it would be surprising were it not the case that the teaching population in such schools is also varied' (2006, p.73) and she cites Garton, Hardman and Cambridge, amongst others, as examples of work that attempt to categorise international teachers according to factors such as their origins, their family circumstances and even their remuneration packages. My own surveys of what Garton calls overseas-hire expatriates, revealed few commonalities beyond an interest in travel and a sense of adventure, indicating a wide diversity of teacher profile, even within one category that could be presumed to be somewhat homogeneous. As with our consideration of international students, therefore, the term international teachers is used here as an umbrella term to include not only those teachers who are literally, or geographically, international, i.e. in schools outside their home country, but also those teaching in international schools within their home country: indeed, all who are teaching in the international schools we have already inclusively defined as international by name and by nature.

The key concern of this thesis is the preparation of these teachers. A major 1995 study by UNESCO's International Bureau of Education, Teacher Training and Multiculturalism, emphasised two seemingly contradictory findings: the critical importance of teachers to successful multicultural education, and the lack of preparation they receive. In his preface to the study, Tedesco (1995, p. v) cautions that 'Mentalities change far more slowly than knowledge...' and indeed, although we do see, more than a decade later, changes beginning to take effect in the programmes of schools, universities and nations, practice continues to lag behind the rhetoric. As an illustration of the positive change, I include in Chapter 4 some specific examples of initial teacher education programmes in the UK, USA, Australia and Canada that do have elements of internationalism embedded. Yet it also highlights the negative lag, as from thousands of initial teacher education programmes available in these countries, the positive examples represent only a small percentage.

What has changed dramatically is the scope of the commitment: this is no longer the realm only of isolated educational idealists. International perspectives relating to teacher education are now routinely reflected in policy statements and commitments both from individual organisations and in national initiatives such as those currently in place in the USA, UK and Australia, where the focus seems to be firmly on developing greater international awareness in students and teachers. Even in countries such as the UAE and China, where the reform is focused on more immediate national issues, (for example, the development of creativity and character education in China and equitable female access and technological competencies in the UAE), international awareness is high up on the agenda, although as a means to an end rather than as an end in itself.

In the USA, for example, teacher knowledge, skills and attitudes (dispositions) in global and international education are mandated by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. The latest updates recognise that 'America's classrooms are

becoming increasingly diverse; over 40 percent of the students in P-12 classrooms are students of color. Twenty per cent of the students have one or more foreign-born parent, many with native languages other than English and from diverse religious and cultural backgrounds...At the same time, teachers of color are less than 20 percent of the teaching force. As a result, most students do not have the opportunity to benefit from a diverse teaching force. Therefore, all teacher candidates must develop proficiencies for working effectively with students and families from diverse populations...to ensure that all students learn. Regardless of whether they live in areas with great diversity, candidates must develop knowledge of diversity in the United States and the world, professional dispositions that respect and value differences, and skills for working with diverse populations...This goal requires educators who can reflect multicultural and global perspectives that draw on the histories, experiences, and representations of students and families from diverse populations' (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education 2008).

In the UK, the International School Award is a government accreditation scheme to encourage curriculum-based international work in schools. More than 400 schools have achieved the award since its creation in 1999, and it plays a key role in the government's vision for the people of the UK to have the knowledge, skills and understanding to fulfil themselves, to live in and contribute effectively to a global society and to work in a competitive, global economy (Department for Education and Science 2004). In the same period, the European Union Comenius Project has funded partnerships for international understanding, cooperation, harmony and friendship, and its successor, the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP), continues to support European cooperation in the field of education and training.

At the other side of the globe, Australia's Global Perspectives: A statement on global education for Australian schools linked to its overseas aid programme, sets out a clear vision: 'Global education is transformative. It does not simply aim to impart knowledge and skills, but to promote positive values, such as a commitment to opposing poverty and injustice, affirming human rights and cultural diversity, seeking a peaceful and just world and working towards environmental sustainability...Global education aims to develop in teachers and students alike an open-mindedness to new thinking about the world and a predisposition to active participation as a member of the global community building a shared future. In short, global education aims to enable and equip young people for global citizenship.' (Curriculum Corporation 2002)

These examples and many others like them provide ample evidence that nations worldwide are not only embracing the need to develop internationally-minded students, but also that they are accepting as a pre-requisite the need to develop internationally-minded teachers. My own involvement with several initiatives to internationalise teacher education reflects concerns that are central to this thesis: What does this mean in practice? How can policy statements and theoretical commitments be converted into practical provision of appropriate preparation for international teachers?

Research design and methodology

The research design focused around three key questions:

What influences people to teach internationally?

What knowledge, skills and characteristics do effective international teachers need?

How does existing training meet these needs?

It was my intention to utilise my extensive range of professional contacts within the international schools sector, so, following a thorough review of the literature and previous research, the three questions would be investigated using three separate surveys, conducted with immediate colleagues, at international conferences and recruitment fairs, and during consultancy visits to schools.

The study is designed with teachers as the central characters and investigating the question of what influences them to teach internationally would provide essential background information on the heterogeneity and/or homogeneity of the group. This was therefore planned as the initial stage of the study, conducted directly with a small sample of teachers through a reflective survey process. This would then be followed by more rigorous and extensive collection of data on the knowledge, skills and characteristics deemed essential for effective international teachers, gathered by survey from administrators, parents and students, as well as from teachers themselves. Information on training was to be gathered in two parts: (i) specific data on the type and extent of training individual teachers had, to be gathered directly from teachers by a further survey, and (ii) general data on the types of training available and the extent to which they include the elements of internationalism identified as essential, to be gathered via internet searches of university websites.

The thesis synthesises the findings from the literature, survey data and personal anecdotal evidence from the international education community. It describes international teachers; the international elements of the education they aim to provide to their students; the preparation they need in order to do so; the effectiveness of the training they have access to; and it proposes a means of increasing that effectiveness. The literature review reveals several common issues that recur historically from the earliest records of international education to current research and geographically across countries and continents, and is structured around those issues. The issues are used as the basis for analysing the survey data and are developed further into seven proposed domains of knowledge and skills deemed essential for international teachers. The domains are ultimately used as the framework for a model of initial and ongoing training for international teachers, which, it is proposed, could be systematically implemented within individual schools and universities, or within whole educational systems at state or national level to increase the effectiveness of teacher preparation for international contexts.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Introduction

With numbers of schools estimated at more than three thousand, international education can certainly be considered significant, and according to predictions (for example, Greenlees 2006, Martin 2003) is likely to be one of the most rapidly growing education sectors over the next decade. It is, however, still a minority sector, and has therefore largely been ignored by mainstream educational researchers, writers and publishers. What research and literature there is comes from a relatively small group of people – mainly the international education community writing for and about itself. This thesis also therefore draws heavily on the related field of global education, a term often used as an umbrella description that includes several other fields such as development education, peace education, multicultural education and world studies (Richardson 1996, Marshall 2007), and it is with this literature that I shall begin.

Development education, peace education, multicultural education, world studies, global education, global citizenship education, education for international understanding...the list goes on. In her exploration of global education terminology, Marshall (2007) asks 'to what extent the big terminology debate continues to matter' – an important question, as the use of, and debates over, the wide range of different terms has served to distract educators from moving forward optimally with the job in hand – the job of educating students to be more aware of and appreciative of the world beyond their own day-to-day lives and their roles and responsibilities relating to that wider world – referred to in this thesis as international-mindedness.

While I argue that the terminology debate is something of an unnecessary distraction, there are certainly differences between global education and international education, not least, their historical development and the clientele they serve. Global education has developed within a national context, and is therefore concerned primarily with educating students ABOUT other nations, cultures and systems, while international education has developed outside a national context, and is concerned primarily with educating students FROM other nations, cultures and systems. These differences seem to have created an apparent mutual disregard. On the one hand, global educators tend to dismiss international education, being composed largely of fee-paying schools, as elitist and even somewhat frivolous. On the other hand, international educators tend to regard global education, being based largely in national education systems with largely national teachers, as having a limited perspective that does not reflect a truly international context. Yet despite the differences, global education has much in common ideologically with international education, both aiming to develop international-mindedness through themes such as international understanding, justice and human rights, sustainable development and cultural pluralism (Steiner 1996). As migration continues apace, and most cities of most countries become increasingly diverse, the differences become less distinct, and if the two fields can be drawn together by their common ideological aims, then much practical advantage can be gained for teachers and students.

One of my central texts, *Developing the Global Teacher* (Steiner 1996), does try to do that. Steiner reports on a collaborative project amongst teacher educators from UK universities and education workers from a range of Non-Governmental Organisations

promoting world studies, development education and global education. Their stated goal was to share experiences and insights and develop approaches that would enable new teachers to bring global perspectives into the curriculum – a goal that closely reflects my own ambitions for teachers in international education.

In his foreword, Tim Brighouse draws the two fields closer together by his references to George Walker, a prominent international educator, former Director General of International School of Geneva, acknowledged as the first international school in the world, and recent Director General of the International Baccalaureate Organization, one of the most prominent international curriculum and assessment bodies. Brighouse talks about the inequities still inherent in education, not only in developing countries but also in the world's most developed nations, and quoting Walker extensively, he emphasises 'the urgency of the issue of global education' and the formidable challenge it poses. This is positively balanced by a reminder of the rich opportunities afforded by multi-faith, multi-lingual inner cities – a reminder which in turn reminded me of the same rich opportunities afforded by our diverse international school classrooms. This balance of challenge and opportunity continues throughout the book, introduced by Brighouse's five principles for global education based on:

- 'the goal of everyone achieving success rather than allowing success for some and failure for others;
- the assumption that intelligence is multi-faceted not general, environmentally affected as well as inherited, and limitless not fixed;
- the assumption that learning is a lifelong not a 'once and for all' activity;
- the assumption that competition is best when ipsatively rather than normatively based;
- the assumption of inclusive not exclusive practices'.

Such principles, powerful enough if applied to individual classrooms and schools, are all the more powerful for being applied in this instance to the global education context and, throughout the text, I found ideas that resonated with the international education context and with each element of my research.

Teacher education

As a prelude to looking in more detail at teacher education for an international context, it is important to consider teacher education generically: its status, how it is organised at both strategic and practical levels, and the key factors that affect it.

Throughout this thesis I highlight 4 nations that provide the majority of international teachers: UK, USA, Australia and Canada (statistical data to support this is detailed in Chapter 4) and this introduction to teacher education therefore also focuses primarily on these 4 nations, although research from other countries is included to illustrate the widespread nature of the perceived problem of inadequate preparation for international contexts.

The importance of teacher education in different countries can be measured by two indicators: the status it is afforded by the governing body of the state or country responsible for it and the resources allocated to it. The two are clearly closely linked, with the latter, ultimately, being the main indicator, for however prominently teacher education might feature in government policy and planning, without adequate resources it is mere rhetoric. One major factor that is immediately apparent is that of governance: all the countries in question have decentralised systems, with separate states and

provinces, and in the case of the UK, countries, being individually responsible for teacher education. In such systems, even when the internationalising of teacher education is urged or mandated at a national level, the practical implementation is determined at a local level. In interpreting research on teacher education therefore, it must be borne in mind that even within one nation, generalisations can be difficult.

Yet common problems are apparent, both amongst and within these 4 nations, not least disconnection and time lag between researchers, policy makers and practitioners:

- Policy makers tend to choose paths that will be more popular - Cohen, Manion and Morrison (1996) preface their guide to teaching practice with a critical overview of the politicisation of education in the UK (and particularly in England and Wales). They highlight the damage done to teacher recruitment, education and retention by a conflicting combination: decreasing the authority of educators in matters of curriculum and standards; media polarisation of 'good' and 'bad' pedagogies; increasing focus on consumerism viewing parents and students as customers (who are always right); and increasing the fiscal responsibility (and therefore pressure) of individual schools.
- Academic researchers tend to reject practitioner research as unscholarly - although there is a movement to reconcile the two fields with calls for research capacity building to become a fundamental part of teacher education (for example, Perkins 1992, Hargreaves and Lo 2000, Murray et al 2008).
- Practitioners tend to accept research that complements their intuition and resist research that contradicts it - what Fisher describes as prioritising operational beliefs over received beliefs (1998). Further, the politicising of education described above leads to a tendency for practitioners to be mistrustful and dismissive of policy changes and mandates per se, overlooking any educational validity there may be.

While Cohen, Manion and Morrison are highly critical of central control, a major US report, *Preparing Teachers Around the World* (Wang et al 2003), looks at it in a more positive light, comparing the decentralised US system of teacher education (involving about 1500 institutions) with seven other countries whose teacher education systems are more tightly controlled (the most extreme example being Singapore with only one teacher education institution). They note that 'while some call for the deregulation of teaching as a means of improving the teaching force, every high-performing country in this study employs significant regulatory controls on their teaching force (p2).' As academic research since the 1990s has been calling for internationalisation of teacher education with seemingly little effect, it may be that the only way to ensure its practical implementation is through centralised mandates, although even these seem to be unable to guarantee real change. For example, in the USA, although teacher education standards are mandated by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (2008) and, as mentioned in the previous chapter, these standards do positively include elements of internationalism, accreditation of teacher education institutions, and therefore, adherence to the standards, is voluntary.

Teacher education for an international context

Steiner's editorial in *Developing the Global Teacher* (1996) launches us straight into the key concern of this thesis: the relationship between initial teacher education and global citizenship. She cites the underlying premise of a 1979 project as equally valid at the time of writing (1996 pp.xii - xvii): 'acquaintance with the 'Third World' could help a teacher become a better teacher, no matter what his or her special subject was' and she

makes the case that 'interdependence is no longer the catch phrase of the development lobby, but a profoundly accurate description of the global condition: economic, cultural, environmental and social. The world's peoples all shop in the global shopping mall, not only in the affluent North, but also in rural markets worldwide where goods from Eastern Europe and China abound. Consumers of entertainment and information on every continent make their choices in the cultural bazaar as Princess Di, CNN and 'Dallas' are beamed to remote villages whose artefacts and crafts are in turn an everyday part of the North's décor and cuisine. Globally dispersed production lines and finance markets never close as the 'virtual economy' is linked around the clock by satellite and computer.'

Yet as Steiner points out, despite this apparent imperative, there are blatant contradictions between policy and teacher education practices in the UK. While global citizenship was designated part of England's official government agenda in the 1990s, and restated in the 2004 strategy 'Putting the World into World-Class Education' (Department for Education and Skills 2004), the 'pressures of the National Curriculum and the re-forming (and 'de-forming') of ITE mean that, on the whole...courses are no longer available.' As I demonstrate in the introductory chapter, there is current evidence that the world is both recognising the need to develop internationally-minded students and accepting the associated need to develop internationally-minded teachers, and Steiner et al would no doubt applaud initiatives such as the International School Award as a step in the right direction. Yet the contradictions between policy and practice continue. The Award, for example, seems to point schools towards a goal without giving them the fundamental resources to achieve it, as a recent Department for International Development report still highlights inadequate curricular time and lack of training for teachers as key obstacles to effective global citizenship education (Davies, Harber and Yamashita 2007). Policy statements and theoretical commitments seem little closer now to being translated into effective practice than they were a decade ago, showing, as Graves notes, a reluctance to implement what is never disputed in principle (1996).

While the contradictions and frustrations expressed throughout the chapters of *Developing the Global Teacher* are all from England and Wales' perspectives and heavily influenced by what are seen as the limitations and restrictions of the National Curriculum, they reflect the situation in many other countries, and also apply directly to international education, as international schools rely on national teacher education systems to supply their teachers. Lack of time and lack of training are stated by teachers worldwide as reasons for neglecting the development of students' international-mindedness, and even in countries like Singapore, where the commitment is clearly stated in government policy and global perspectives are firmly embedded in teacher education programme outlines, teachers still report that in practice it is these elements of courses that are most often cut or sidestepped.

This lack within teacher education is clearly illustrated by a 1995 UNESCO IBE project, *Teacher Training and Multiculturalism* (Gagliardi 1995), which presents the results of studies in countries as diverse as Bolivia, the Czech Republic, Jordan, Lebanon, Mauritius, Poland, Senegal and Tunisia. Each country is described as having a specific national multicultural context, and the studies focus on how well teacher education programmes prepare teachers for that context. Although each country's multicultural context is different, several common issues are identified - mono-cultural curricula, homogeneous objectives, limited pupil language capacity and teacher difficulties in adapting to and communicating with pupils from other cultures – issues

which mirror both the reported findings from England and Wales and my own experience in international education. Gagliardi both opens and concludes with the clear priority that ‘teacher training needs to be reorganized in order to improve the capacity of teachers to teach in a multicultural context’ (pp. 1-10). As with Steiner’s findings, however, the theory is not always translated into practice, and, frustratingly, I find no evidence of this UNESCO project having completed its goal of ‘preparing an integrated model of teacher training for multicultural/intercultural education’ – even though the issues are clearly listed, the parameters for the model are identified, and a comprehensive list of necessary activities is presented.

Despite these frustrations, and the somewhat disheartening picture painted by the studies, the issues identified as obstacles within these national systems do reflect the issues within international education. As noted above, international schools are directly affected by national systems of teacher training as they rely on them for their supply of teachers, and, one could argue, training needs that within a national system might be considered desirable become essential in an international context.

Though relatively small, the international education community is active in its research and writing, led primarily by two University of Bath professors, Hayden and Thompson, whose passion for, and understanding of, the international context has probably done more to raise the profile of international education than any educators from directly within the field. Despite not coming from an international school background themselves, Hayden and Thompson have pioneered research and teacher education in this area, establishing the university’s innovative Centre for Education in an International Context (CEIC) and developing both Master’s and Doctoral programmes that are not only internationally-focused but also internationally-accessible. Both Hayden and Thompson have had long-standing involvement with the International Baccalaureate’s (IBO) development of international curriculum, and the incorporation into the CEIC of an IBO Research Unit seems to have encouraged the sharing of learning between the international and national systems of education. For two decades, they have been energetic in engaging international school practitioners in research and writing, establishing a knowledge base that elevates international education to a higher level of professionalism, and raises many of the individual issues that, combined, have prompted me to propose a comprehensive model of preparation for international teachers (Snowball 2007).

Sylvester’s ambition for such a model has paralleled my own, and combines idealism – a passionate belief in internationalizing education - and pragmatism in recognizing that the way to make this happen is via national systems of teacher education (2006). Similarly, Levy’s work on pre-service teacher preparation for international settings (2007) is helpful as it also looks at both national and international perspectives, considering how each can benefit the other. Levy’s hope that ‘Given the amount of globalization and mobility transforming the world, it is reasonable to expect a plethora of teacher preparation programmes for international settings’ (p. 213) is only partially fulfilled, and while he presents an encouraging array of examples, it is clear that internationalism in teacher education is still at an embryonic stage. He emphasises that because initial (pre-service) teacher education is primarily concerned with preparing teachers for the home country, there is little evidence of international elements such as comparative education, study of world languages or overseas teaching practice. Despite this lack, he concurs with my earlier positive note that ‘national education systems are increasingly recognizing the importance of globalization and are reforming teacher preparation curricula accordingly’ and, like Sylvester, he concludes that the best chance

of improving teacher preparation for international contexts is by including elements of internationalism as a fundamental part of initial teacher education.

During this literature review I have identified several common issues for internationalism in teacher education, that recur in literature from Tagore in 1922 to Levy in 2007, and the second part of this chapter will review the more specific literature pertaining to each issue. While consideration of each issue is firmly anchored in the international context as defined for the purposes of this research, several of the issues have relevance in the broader educational context, and the literature reviewed is therefore drawn from this broader context.

Issue (i) The international education context

International education

The most fundamental of these issues concerns the very identity of international education and, as previously noted, attempts to describe and define it have been, and will no doubt continue to be, numerous. Many seem to have ‘played safe’, using more tangible or quantifiable school components as the basis for definition, typically including diversity of student and staff nationalities, languages represented, and curricular framework used. It seems, however, that such definitions miss the point somewhat, listing only the ‘ingredients’ rather than describing the ‘cake’ they want to produce, and thereby underplaying the enormous potential of international education. Such definitions further presume that ‘increasing group exposure to members of various groups can increase positive evaluations...and decrease prejudice and stereotyping’ (Williams 1947, cited in Nelson 2006). Others would argue that putting students and staff of different nationalities in the same building is not enough and indeed, that if not proactively managed, such ‘incidental proximity’ can have negative rather than positive consequences (Allport 1954), an idea that is pursued in more detail in the section on multiculturalism later in this chapter. They would propose instead that international education is defined by something much more abstract and qualitative.

The roots of international education can be traced back, at a very conservative estimate, for more than a century, to the early 1900s and the work of, among others, Rabindranath Tagore, who is credited as one of the earliest educators to emphasise the importance of multi-racial, multi-lingual and multi-cultural learning. His experimental school, university and global cultural centre, Visva-Bharati, was envisioned as a meeting ground of cultures that emphasised that the beauty created by artists, the secrets of the universe discovered by scientists and the problems of existence solved by philosophers, were not merely for some particular race to which they belonged, but for all mankind (Tagore 1922). In terms of curriculum, he advocated a different approach, emphasising generic aspects of social and cultural development and innovations that had integrated individuals of diverse backgrounds, rather than the specifics of national histories, achievements and dominance (O’Connell 2003). The work of Tagore and other such educational pioneers was reflected in the post-war establishing of the New Education Fellowship in 1921 (renamed the World Education Fellowship in 1966) whose focus has remained firmly centred on world citizenship, international understanding and world peace, up to current times.

The following extract from an unattributed entry on the International Journal of Learning Weblog uses parallel quotes more than a century apart to illustrate the enduring drive by educators to emphasise the imperative of taking a global approach to education.

‘1. “Some four specific developments may be mentioned as having a bearing upon the question of the school as a social center. The first of these is the much-increased efficiency and ease of all the agencies that have to do with bringing people into contact with one another. Recent inventions have so multiplied and cheapened the means of transportation, and of the circulation of ideas and news...that it is no longer physically possible for one nationality, race, class, or sect to be kept apart from others, impervious to their wishes and beliefs. Cheap and rapid long-distance transportation has made America a meeting-place for all the peoples and tongues of the world. The centralization of industry has forced members of classes into the closest association with, and dependence upon, each other. Bigotry, intolerance, or even unswerving faith in the superiority of one’s own religious and political creed, are much shaken when individuals are brought face-to-face with each other, or have the ideas of others continuously and forcibly placed before them...It is said that one ward of Chicago has forty different languages represented in it. It is a well-known fact that some of the largest Irish, German, and Bohemian cities in the world are located in America, not in their own countries...No educational system can be regarded as complete until it adopts into itself the various ways in which social and intellectual intercourse may be promoted, and employs them systematically...to make them positive causes in raising the whole level of life.”

2. “I contend there are four factors at the heart of the current wave of globalization, the first of which is growing worldwide immigration. Sweden, a country of nine million people, has about one million immigrants; the United States now has more immigrants (about 33 million people) than the entire Canadian population; and China alone has well over 100 million rural-to-urban migrants. The second dominant feature is the power and ubiquity of new global technologies...The third...is the post-nationalization of production and distribution of goods and services. Economies are growing more integrated, making it extremely difficult to talk about the “Swedish economy”, the “Indian economy”, or even the “Cuban economy”. The fourth...is the area of back-and-forth culture flows...(E)ducation...can generate such powerful virtuous cycles and is the best antidote for growing inequalities and growing hatred among our youth.”

The first quote is from an address entitled “The School as Social Center”, delivered by John Dewey (1859-1952) in July of 1902 to the National Council of Education; the second, from an interview with Professor Marcelo Suarez-Orozco, then at the Harvard Graduate School of Education, published in their HGSE News, on April 1, 2004. The common, interrelated elements of immigration, contact, economies, communication, together with the general societal conundrum...of how to effectively and formally respond through education to the phenomena such that a nation’s particular identity constructs of culture, political system and community remain inviolate, have, in fact, persisted for more than a century’ (International Journal of Learning 2006).

International schools

In September 2006, the Herald Tribune (Greenlees 2006) reported that ‘there are about 3,000 schools around the world that could be classed as international based on the student body, curriculum and language of instruction.’ In the same report, regional international school councils for East Asia (EARCOS) and Europe (ECIS) estimated 2006 student numbers at 68,557 and 245,000 respectively. With thousands of schools,

tens of thousands of teachers, and hundreds of thousands of students, international schools form a rapidly growing sector of education. Greenlees suggests that ‘One measure of the growth (*of international education*) is the number of new international schools opening their doors... No single organisation keeps track of all international schools around the world, but the experience of the Commission on American and International Schools Abroad...is illustrative of a global trend. In its first 20 years of life, the commission accredited 46 schools with an American curriculum in countries in Europe, Africa and Asia. Since 2001, it has accredited another 76 schools and has a current list of 24 candidates awaiting accreditation...By one estimate, 100 new schools were opened last year...The economic rise of Asia and other parts of the developing world and the growth of international commerce have drawn millions of people to the expatriate life and they have brought their children with them.’ Not all of these children can be educated within national education sectors. UN Population Division figures published in 2000 show the number of migrants worldwide (defined as persons outside their country of birth or citizenship for 12 months or more) to be 175 million compared to 154 million in 1990 and 85 million in 1975. In a more specific example from my own current home, in 2005 Amsterdam’s non-Dutch inhabitants became the majority when their numbers increased beyond the 50% mark. To be genuinely effective, education for the children of such migrants has to take account of linguistic and cultural differences, as well as the mobility of the families involved, and, while countries encourage and rely on their migrant workers, the provision of such tailored education is often beyond the capacity of national education systems. Martin (2003) predicts that changes in demographics, economics, communications, transportation and international legal rights inevitably mean continually increasing international migration for employment purposes. In a purely pragmatic sense, then, international schools provide a valuable alternative

International students

As noted in the previous introductory chapter, defining international students and international-mindedness is not easy, yet despite a diverse range of lists of characteristics, there does seem to be a common conceptual understanding. The model in Figure 1 is typical of these efforts to define the knowledge, skills and attitudes that internationally-minded students should display.

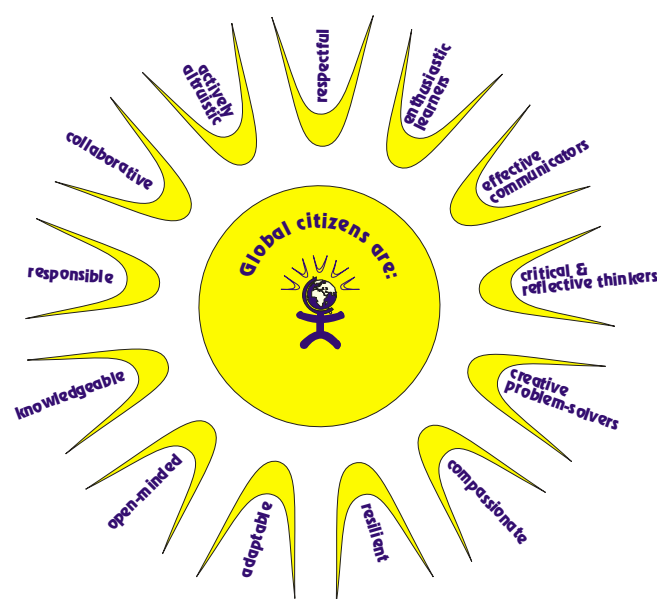


Fig.1 Characteristics of global citizens (Snowball 2005)

<p>Global citizens are respectful</p> <p>Going beyond the respect for cultural and linguistic differences that is typically an integral part of international awareness, global citizens demonstrate respect for the world as a whole - its resources and limitations, its societies and systems - showing humility in recognising their place in a much bigger picture.</p>
<p>Global citizens are enthusiastic learners</p> <p>Given the infinite amount there is to learn about, the rapid pace of change worldwide and the continually increasing access to information provided by advancing technologies, maintaining ongoing enthusiasm for learning is essential for global citizens.</p>
<p>Global citizens are effective communicators</p> <p>Learning two or more languages, being aware of the worldwide extent of multilingualism, and simply being sensitive to the potential challenges of cross-cultural communication, are key life skills for global citizens.</p>
<p>Global citizens are critical and reflective thinkers</p> <p>We are bombarded with information from multiple sources enhanced by sophisticated technologies, making it increasingly difficult to verify credibility and accuracy. Global citizens must critically assess such information, reflecting on potential bias and attempts to manipulate, and independently forming their own opinions.</p>
<p>Global citizens are creative problem-solvers</p> <p>Problem-solving has traditionally been included primarily as part of the mathematics curriculum, with a few more enlightened schools using it more broadly, but still, typically, only within specific subject areas. Given the complexity and trans-disciplinary nature of the global issues our students will face, they will need extensive cross-curricular problem-solving skills that can be adapted to changing situations.</p>
<p>Global citizens are compassionate</p> <p>They strive to be unselfish, showing compassion towards all people and living things, and opposing cruelty, exploitation, inequity and injustice generally.</p>
<p>Global citizens are resilient</p> <p>Complex problems require complex solutions and confronting the range of significant global issues that currently face our students will require ongoing determination and courage.</p>
<p>Global citizens are adaptable</p> <p>Job tenure worldwide is decreasing rapidly and a series of jobs or multiple professions are now the norm for young people. As technologies, systems and resources continue to change, the one thing we can predict without doubt that our students will need is the flexibility to adapt to changing circumstances.</p>
<p>Global citizens are open-minded</p> <p>They are tolerant, respecting the beliefs, values and opinions of others. They strive to put aside bias and instantaneous judgement, being open to new ideas and seeking new perspectives as a means of enriching their own understandings.</p>
<p>Global citizens are knowledgeable</p> <p>They have a broad-base of knowledge across a range of subject areas and are interested in and well-informed about current affairs in different regions of the world. Looking beyond specific facts and figures, they develop deeper understandings of underlying concepts.</p>
<p>Global citizens are responsible</p> <p>They appreciate that shared responsibility for global issues starts with individual responsibility for local issues. They take responsibility for their own actions, acting as role models by encouraging others to do the same.</p>
<p>Global citizens are collaborative</p> <p>They enjoy the rewards and challenges of working with others, believing that a whole can be greater than the sum of its parts, ie. combined efforts can be more successful than multiple individual efforts.</p>
<p>Global citizens are actively altruistic</p> <p>Being willing to do something without expectation of direct personal reward or recognition is an important part of citizenship, and at a global level, this often relates to unknown people or indirect situations, which requires much greater commitment. The less directly we are affected, the less likely we are to take action, so most people are only passively altruistic - they care but never get round to taking action. For global citizens, active altruism is essential.</p>

Fig.1 (cont) Characteristics of global citizens (Snowball 2005)

International teachers

In considering more closely what preparation international teachers need in order to most effectively help develop the internationally-minded students described above, I return to question of 'education as a national or an international responsibility', the central theme of Walker's 2006 address. The two examples below, taken from my own experience, are illustrations of the contrasting viewpoints that exist.

In the first example, while developing an interdisciplinary unit on Global Citizenship with a group of teacher trainers representing the 24 regions of Peru, a heated discussion arose as the group claimed that such a concept was an oxymoron, as individual rights and responsibilities are governed by national, and not international, bodies. The argument revealed an underlying belief that the process of becoming a global citizen is subtractive not additive, i.e. that global citizenship replaces, rather than enhances, national citizenship, and that therefore in gaining global citizenship one must inevitably lose some national citizenship. For the patriotic Peruvians presenting this viewpoint, this led to the conclusion that global citizenship was not a good thing to encourage. They further supported their argument with the contention that before being able to solve global issues, an individual must be able to solve his/her own country's problems: Peruvians, they felt, were currently therefore in no position to make valid global contributions.

The second example came from discussions at the National Institute of Education in Singapore about the importance given to developing global citizenship and its practical inclusion in Singapore's school curricula and teacher education courses. Singapore, I was told, is a country created to include a mix of cultures, religions and languages, whose economic and cultural survival is dependent on its diversity and its constructive relationships with regional neighbours (for example, through its ASEAN membership) and global counterparts (for example, through the UN, and worldwide university links). As such, the concept of global citizenship is seen as inseparable from that of national citizenship: an additive rather than subtractive model, in which global citizenship enhances national citizenship. Global citizenship therefore is an essential component of education in Singapore, incorporated from early childhood classes through to teacher education courses.

These Peruvian educators are not alone in their view of global and national citizenship as being mutually exclusive. For example, Starkey (2006) points out that models of citizenship education promoted by national governments tend, not surprisingly, to define citizenship predominantly in terms of nationality or even patriotism. Fortunately, however, the growing number of international school awards (Department for Education and Science 999), (International Schools Association 2006); international student awards (European Council of International Schools 2008), (Roberts 2008); international curricula (International Baccalaureate Organization 2002, 2007, 2008), (International Primary Curriculum 2001); and international teacher certification programs such as FAST TRAIN (George Mason University 2008) and Putting it into Practice International Education Certificate (Snowball 2002a) seem to indicate that views worldwide are starting to reflect the more inclusive, outward-looking approach shown by Singapore.

While not viewing the two as mutually exclusive, much of the work on the 'identity' issue has involved comparing international education with national education (for example, Walker 2000a, Al Farra 2000, Levy 2007). While in some ways it can be

argued that this is like comparing, if not apples and oranges then apples and pears, there are good reasons why the comparison continues:

- an acknowledged method of defining a concept is by reference to non-examples as well as examples – comparison with national education helps international education identify what it is not, and therefore more clearly define what it is
- it gives a relatively stable point of reference for individual international schools - although we refer to international schools as if they were a homogeneous group, they are so diverse that they can rarely provide effective mutual benchmarks and, as they account for only a tiny minority of schools in any country, they must refer to the majority context in order to understand fully their own niche
- it gives a point of reference for international education as a whole – by far the bulk of research and development is undertaken within national contexts, from which international education has to create its own interpretations
- the experience of the vast majority of international educators is grounded in a national education system – most trained in national systems and began their teaching careers there
- the vast majority of international school students spend at least some of their time in national education systems

and, last but certainly not least,

- most international educators believe that the goal of developing internationally-mindedness is not only for the privileged few in international schools but is relevant and desirable for all – by constantly comparing the two systems, we can evaluate how each can learn from the other.

I return then to the different ways of defining schools: when we compare international education and global education according to the first type of definition (schools' tangible, quantitative components) we are likely to find significant differences - if, however, we compare them according to the second type of definition (schools' abstract, qualitative attributes) we are likely to find significant similarities.

To summarise the issue of identity I refer to a recent publication, *The Handbook of Research in International Education* (Hayden, Levy and Thompson 2007). Praised as a first, the handbook combines in one comprehensive text perspectives on the key issues arising in international education: definitions and interpretations; history and development; goals and values; characteristics of students; the role of language; cultural diversity; international curriculum; and teacher education. The issue of identity, as well as being considered in its own right, serves as an umbrella for the other issues, as the identity of international education as a whole can be determined only by reference to each of its key components. The remainder of this literature review is therefore structured around these key components, each of which has its own body of specialist knowledge as well as perspectives from the international education context.

Issue (ii) Student characteristics and learning

This vast area of pedagogical understanding is fundamental to teacher education generally and is the focus of much educational research and literature. Two aspects that are of particular importance to international teachers are diversity and differentiation, and it is on these that this section will focus. In his foreword to *Developing the Global Teacher* (Steiner 1996 pp.vii - x), Professor Tim Brighouse sets forth five principles that serve as an excellent starting point, being focused, as they are, on education for all:

'1. Schooling and education should be based on the goal of everyone achieving success rather than allowing success for some and failure for others.'

In the context of a typical international school classroom this could mean teaching classes of up to 30 consisting of students from 20 different nationalities, 15 different first languages and 8 different religions; home-schooled students and students who have been in formal education since the age of 18 months; transient global nomads spending only one or two years in different international schools around the world and local students attending because of parental dissatisfaction with the national education provision. As Hayden (2006 p.39) notes, 'not only does the population of international school students vary in terms of cultural, national and linguistic backgrounds and previous educational experience, there is also considerable variation in the reasons for students attending an international school in the first place.' Such factors in international schools add significantly to the already complex picture of variation in student ability, motivation and personality. In such settings, success for all is clearly a challenge and as Gay (cited in Sylvester 1998 p.187) points out 'the incompatibilities or discontinuities between the culture of the school and those of different ethnic groups need to be major issues of analysis in making decisions about educational programs and practices...'

Brighouse undoubtedly did not intend the extent of his principles to be limited by economic considerations, but these too play a significant part in defining the international context. Whether they fall into Matthews' market-driven or ideology-driven category (1988), most international schools are fee-based, and consider their families as customers who choose and continue using their services depending on the level of satisfaction given. In such a climate, failure for some is not an acceptable outcome, and the success for everyone that Brighouse urges is a universal expectation. While clearly an expectation to be applauded, one could argue, however, that as many international schools have selective admissions procedures, they are in effect allowing failure for some by not admitting those students they consider most at risk of failing. Indeed the issue of inclusion in international schools has sparked many heated debates and is further discussed later in this section under Brighouse's fifth principle.

'2. Schooling and education should be based on the assumption that intelligence is multi-faceted not general, environmentally affected as well as inherited, and limitless not fixed.'

The proliferation of brain research over the past two decades has dramatically impacted understanding of learning, with theories such as Gardner's Multiple Intelligences (1983) having widespread, and, arguably, the most significant, impact. The result of many years of investigation into human potential, Gardner's suggestion that intelligence is a complex multi-faceted profile, rather than a single fixed capacity, resonated with educators worldwide. His theory 'is perhaps more accurately described as a philosophy of education, an attitude toward learning, or even a meta-model of education in the spirit of John Dewey's ideas on progressive education rather than a set program of fixed techniques and strategies' (Armstrong 1994 p.x). As a means, therefore, of describing intelligence that can be (and has been) applied in a vast range of educational contexts, his theory has generated a plethora of different interpretations. In international schools, with their wide diversity of student experience, the idea that intelligence is multi-faceted is fundamental to appreciating and addressing the needs of all students.

Yet international school teachers are also diverse, coming from widely varying backgrounds, and for many of them such ideas may be challenging, conflicting with

their own beliefs and training. Teacher education programmes within and across different education systems vary greatly in the relative emphasis they place on WHAT to teach (curriculum) and on HOW to teach (pedagogy), and many teachers still emerge with a detailed understanding of their chosen subject area/s but with only limited understanding of student characteristics and development, or current teaching and learning strategies. Many educators are acquainted with Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences. They can name most if not all of his seven intelligences, and they can even give examples of how they've used them in their life. I suspect relatively few, however, have made the seven intelligences a regular part of their classroom teaching' (Steller, cited in Armstrong 1994, p.v). For international teachers the practical application of such theories is fundamental to meeting the needs of each student in their care.

'3. Schooling and education should be based on the assumption that learning is a lifelong not a 'once and for all' activity.'

With rising fuel and food prices, unpredictable weather patterns and ever-increasing travel and technology possibilities, few would disagree that the world is changing at an unprecedented rate. Most of us would find it a challenge to list even a fraction of the significant changes of the last 20 years, and would struggle even more to attempt to predict those of the next 20 years. As Rischard (2002) and many others predict, the next twenty years could bring more rapid and more profound change than any other period in history. Here then is a clear imperative for learning to be a lifelong activity, if students are to adapt to this ongoing change. Further, it must be learning that can be adapted, not only to ongoing change, but also to the diverse contexts within which the students will operate, as, feasibly international school students might study and work anywhere in the world. They are highly likely to be in unknown environments for at least part of their lives and openness to continuous learning will be a significant factor in their success and happiness.

A quick scan of international school's mission, vision and philosophy statements reveals that lifelong learning features prominently (for example, The International School of Amsterdam, Western Academy of Beijing). 'Our children are growing up in a world where rapid change is one of life's constants. Technology and global economics have reshaped our world during the past decade. The advent of the Internet and e-commerce in the last few years has provided many opportunities for those with the necessary skills and attitudes to adapt to this rapidly changing environment and be successful. Today, business is seeking highly skilled young people who not only have a strong work ethos, but are passionate and committed. They are looking for people who can use Information Technology (IT); who see opportunities to adapt and incorporate emerging technologies...Today's kindergarten students will be in the workforce around 2020. We cannot imagine the changes in technology, lifestyle and work that will occur in the next 20 years, let alone the mid 21st century. To keep pace with this change, everyone must be a learner for life, and have ownership for their own learning and professional development. No longer must professionals simply keep their own careers up to date - they must have the adaptability to switch between several jobs in a lifetime.' (Western Academy of Beijing 2008)

'4. Schooling and education should be based on the assumption that competition is best when ipsatively rather than normatively based.'

Given the cultural and linguistic diversity that is typical in international schools, using normatively-based assessment is fraught with challenges, yet many international schools, feeling the need (often due to parental pressure) to measure their students

against established norms, use some form of standardized testing as part of their assessment system. Usually this is done with the recognition that their unique context compromises the test validity to some extent, and international schools with high proportions of home country nationals will often opt for standardized tests normed on the home country population, which both optimises the validity of the tests and serves the interests of families who intend to return home. For example, American International Schools might choose ERB (Educational Records Bureau 2008) or AP (Advanced Placement) (College Board 2008), while British International Schools might choose SATs (Standardized Attainment Tests) (Department for Children, Families and Schools 2008). Many international schools however, choose from a number of assessments that are normed on the international schools that participate, and as such, claim greater validity in such settings. Amongst the most successful of these are the long-established IB Diploma (International Baccalaureate Organization 2008), the IGCSE (International General Certificate of Secondary Education) (University of Cambridge International Examinations 2008) and the more recent ISA (International Schools' Assessment) developed by the Australian Council for Educational Research (2008).

Brighouse's point, however, is that 'improving against one's own previous personal best' is preferable to competing against others, especially others who have widely varying background experiences and opportunities, a view supported by a plethora of educators and authors. Kohn (1992, 2000), for example, draws on hundreds of studies in his argument that competition demotivates and sabotages self-esteem, while Marzano (2000) and Popham (2001) highlight the lack of reliability (and therefore validity) of the competitive grading systems so widely used, calling instead for assessment that diagnostically describes the strengths and weaknesses of individual students. In the diverse classrooms of international schools such individually diagnostic assessment seems essential and again, a quick scan of international school websites is revealing, this time, for the absence of 'competitiveness' as a stated aim for students. It is hard to justify therefore why it is such an embedded element of the 'covert curriculum' (Toffler 1980, p.44) and why so many schools are still reliant on outdated competitive testing practices.

'5. Schooling and education should be based on the assumption of inclusive not exclusive practice.'

While we have demonstrated that in some respects international schools are exemplars of inclusive practice, serving, as many of them do, a myriad of nationalities, cultures, languages and religions, in other respects they fall far short of the ideal assumed by Brighouse, and this section will focus briefly on these shortcomings. As was outlined earlier in this section when considering the first of his principles, the level of fees charged by most international schools automatically excludes some students on economic grounds, while many schools have selective admissions procedures that consider factors such as academics, behaviour and personal characteristics, nationality, professional status of parents and anticipated length of stay.

As a consequence, students of lower ability, with poor academic performance records or a specific learning difficulty may be denied admission, as may those with anything other than an exemplary record of behaviour. Bradley (2000 p.33) makes a strong argument for inclusion and asks international educators, 'How much longer can most of our institutions continue to ignore this particular group of students?' Despite worldwide moves towards inclusive education, international schools have many ways of justifying their continued exclusive practices, for example, the difficulty of providing an

appropriate curriculum; lack of specialised staff and support services; high per student cost; and potential detriment to other students, in my experience a frequently-used argument. Of course each of these contains at least an element of truth and it would be unrealistic not to recognise the challenges of providing an inclusive education in an international setting. It is my experience that students experiencing educational difficulties of any kind are likely to have more difficulty adjusting to a new setting, and their problems may well be amplified by the demands of a dual language programme, common to many international schools. The specialised kinds of support required may indeed not be available, or may be inaccessible due to language differences, and even very simple problems, such as minor speech impediments, which would be easily remedied in a home country system, can become significant obstacles without the necessary help. Finally, there is perhaps the most challenging obstacle: many parents do object to having students with learning differences included in classes with their own children, and, as fee-paying customers, their opinions carry significant weight. It is often therefore a pragmatic, rather than a philosophical, decision for international schools not to embrace inclusive education.

Exclusion on the basis of nationality might seem unthinkable, yet my own experience suggests that it is common practice in many international schools, and local laws and the permissions under which the schools are set up often prohibit host country nationals from attending. Even in a country such as The Netherlands, known for its liberal attitudes, Dutch parents need special permission to send their child to an independent international school. (Although in fact the defined circumstances are quite broad, including mixed nationality parents or grandparents, previous international work experience or a reasonable prediction of future international work, and in a nation as ethnically diverse as The Netherlands, this includes a large proportion of the population). Anecdotal evidence shows that even if the attendance of host country nationals is not limited by law, schools themselves often choose to limit the places available in order to maintain a balanced mix of nationalities. If no such limits are placed (schools claim), natural attrition of the mobile expatriate families can very quickly mean host country nationals become the majority group, so schools try to avoid what they see as an inevitable change of ethos and loss of international identity.

In addition to economic and nationality restrictions, the professional status of parents may also be a factor for admission. For example, one such school with which I was very familiar served the United Nations and exercised a very strict hierarchical admissions policy, with Diplomats and senior UN Directors in the top category, followed by UN Professional staff, both of which were guaranteed places; next came the international business community; UN General service staff; and finally, the local business community. Host country nationals were limited to 20% of the school population, or in classes of 25, no more than 5 students.

It is clear then that Brighouse's five principles of education for all still need some work, but, having highlighted some of the shortcomings international schools demonstrate in respect of their provision of inclusive education, let us return to the more positive and better-known perspective: international schools as exemplars of education for diversity.

As noted above, the proliferation of brain research over the past two decades has dramatically impacted understanding of learning, and theories such as Gardner's Multiple Intelligences (1983), and approaches such as constructivism (Brooks and Brooks 1993), Socratic inquiry (Fisher 1998) and differentiation (Tomlinson 1999) are now commonly included in teacher education programmes. Further, survey data for this

thesis show that pedagogical understanding and the ability to recognise, be sensitive to and make appropriate provision for the needs of diverse learners is clearly identified by parents, administrators and teachers themselves as the key skill required by effective international teachers.

So how are students diverse? In what ways do they differ? Most general teacher education texts agree in their basic categorisation of diversity and a typical list will include some or all of the following:

- gender
- learning style
- intelligence
- ability
- aptitude
- race
- ethnicity
- culture
- language
- social and economic status

(see for example, Cohen, Manion and Morrison 1996, Kyriacou 1997 & 1998, Arends 2007)

In this section we will look at the literature pertaining to the first five items: gender, learning style, intelligence, ability and aptitude. Language, and race, ethnicity and culture, combined under multiculturalism, are considered so fundamental to international schools and teachers that they are looked at as separate sections later in this chapter, and social and economic status is not considered here as it is generally not a significant factor in international schools.

Gender has long been a hot topic in education. The question is no longer whether both genders should have access to education as, due in no small part to the work of global organisations such as UNICEF, Save the Children and UNESCO, it is now universally accepted that both boys and girls should receive at least basic education. This acceptance however is in principle only as there are still many areas of the world where this is not the common practice, for reasons that include both philosophical (for example, cultural beliefs that regard the genders as fundamentally unequal) and pragmatic (for example, economic priorities relating to the cost of education or needing the children to work).

It is not, however, the issue of access that is the main concern of international teachers but the issue of pedagogy – understanding gender differences in learning, and adapting teaching appropriately to ensure equality of opportunity. In recent decades the focus of gender education literature has tended to polarise, swinging from how the system disadvantages girls, to the more recent call for positive discrimination for boys including best sellers such as *Real Boys' Voices* (Pollack and Shuster 2001) and *Raising Cain* (Kindlon, Thompson and Barker 2000). Powell and Kusuma-Powell's (2007) extensive and informative overview of recent neurological evidence, while not campaigning for either gender, highlights several key aspects of difference, confirming what has, in many cases, been known intuitively by decades of teachers. It seems however that the differences may be more fundamental than the learning behaviours that are familiar to teachers – if, as the evidence suggests, girls and boys not only have differences in linguistic, logical-mathematical and spatial abilities, but also in basic

organisational brain structure and in visual and aural functioning, then the implications for teachers are significant.

To add to the complexity, many gender issues that international teachers encounter stem from differences in cultural values. Some cultures still regard education for girls as less important and parents may be very lax about the attendance, promptness, homework or grades of girls, while having much higher expectations for, and of, the boys. Conversely, behaviour expectations often follow the opposite pattern, with higher expectations for the girls, and a relaxed, more indulgent attitude to the boys. Indeed in some cultures, boys are so highly regarded that it is unacceptable for mothers (being female) to reprimand their male children in any way. Cultural issues relate not only to the students but also to the teachers themselves. Female teachers for example, may find it more difficult to command respect from male students and fathers from some cultures. In other cultures, contact between male teachers and female students, or even mothers, may be considered inappropriate. International teachers, immersed, as they often are, in a diverse mix of cultures, must show sensitivity and adaptability in ensuring equality of educational opportunity for both girls and boys.

Intelligence, and the related concepts of learning style, ability and aptitude, has been a central focus of educational research and literature across the ages, and current theories on how children learn have their base in work as geographically diverse as Ancient Greece and Indo-China. For example, centuries of development of the Socratic method have resulted in the current constructivist approach, while Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences reflects thinking about elements of human personality and learning style from Hippocrates and Confucius to Jung and Piaget.

'Despite this storied history of the concept of human intelligence, it is safe to say that no other century has seen such a shift in the definition of intelligence as we have in the 20th century' (Silver, Strong and Perini 2000, p.5). Arguably, the most significant single contribution is the work of Howard Gardner, who, by simply adding a plural letter 's' to the word intelligence, created a paradigm shift of unprecedented significance (1983). Motivated by conundrums of apparently intelligent students who lacked basic conceptual understandings, and informed by the revelations of increasingly intricate brain research, his theory of multiple intelligences (1983), often referred to simply as MI, is now almost a household name worldwide, appealing not only to educators but to parents and students themselves, seeking to escape from traditions that often categorised them coarsely as either intelligent or unintelligent. Describing intelligence qualitatively as a profile of different types or strands, rather than a single-stranded measurement, MI theory has undoubtedly had a profound effect on education. It has subsequently spawned a multitude of research and practitioner literature, which has contributed both to a better understanding (and, indeed, the creation) of the concept of educational diversity, and to helping teachers address that diversity (see for example, Armstrong 1994; Torff 1997; Campbell and Campbell 1999; Silver, Strong and Perini 2000).

The influence of brain research generally and multiple intelligence theory specifically, as well as approaches such as constructivism (Brooks and Brooks 1993), differentiation (Tomlinson 1999), teaching for thinking (Fisher 1998) and teaching for understanding (Blythe 1998), have been of major significance for international teachers. Each, in its own way, emphasises the uniqueness of each student and the necessity for teaching to be tailored to that uniqueness. In the context of a diverse international classroom this presents a challenge indeed.

That said, I feel fortunate that my 30 years as an educator has been spent in special schools and international schools, for immersion in these environments has ensured that I have experienced every type of diversity, and that differentiation has therefore always been an imperative rather than an option. Generally unhampered by the social and economic deprivation that can create obstacles for schools in national systems, international schools seem to enjoy the 'best' of diversity, and as such, seem to have little excuse for not embracing it enthusiastically and dealing with it effectively.

Issue (iii) Multiculturalism

In some respects multiculturalism is simply an aspect of student diversity, yet it is so fundamental to international schools and teachers that it seems to warrant its own section. The literature on multiculturalism is extensive, and, although there is much overlap between them, I identified three main categories:

- (a) literature which refers to culture transnationally or generically, seeking to understand the fundamental concept of culture, its evolution and its effects;
- (b) literature which refers to multiculturalism within national settings, seeking to understand those cultures, indigenous and immigrant, which are representative of the country;
- (c) literature which refers to culture within the specific context of international education, the so-called 'third' or 'expatriate' culture which is often regarded as a culture in itself.

Generic aspects of culture

Beginning with the category that looks at culture generically, the overlap mentioned above is immediately apparent, as any writing on culture is inevitably affected by the cultural make-up of the author. The perspectives taken and examples used are often from those cultures with which he or she is most familiar. The author's purpose however is key, as, in this category, such examples are a means to an end, used to illustrate the broader concept of culture, rather than to provide information about any individual culture.

As this thesis is concerned primarily with the implications for teacher education, I have focused on what Bennett (1998) calls the 'theory-into-practice school' rather than the 'theory-and-research school'. Indeed, Bennett's stated intent of improving intercultural communication skills through education and training closely reflects my own purpose, and his collection of selected readings, and in particular the work of Barna, were fundamental to the multicultural section of this thesis. Bennett's question, 'How do people understand one another when they do not share a common cultural experience?' is key to this issue, not only for the 'diplomats, expatriates and occasional international traveller' to whom he refers, but also to international teachers. He suggests that historically humans have used a limited repertoire of strategies for dealing with people who are different: avoidance (keep away from them), conversion (make them similar to us) or destruction (get rid of them). Clearly none of these strategies is available to the teacher, whose goal must be to communicate effectively on a day-to-day basis with students, parents and colleagues from diverse cultural backgrounds, and the need to deal with several cultures simultaneously makes this even more challenging. Barna (1998, pp.173 - 189) takes a different perspective, asking not 'How do people understand one another...?' but 'How do they misunderstand one another...?' and her 'six stumbling blocks' accurately illustrate the practical problems teachers encounter:

- assuming similarity
- language differences

- non-verbal misinterpretations
- preconceptions and stereotypes
- tendency to evaluate
- high anxiety

Despite, or perhaps because of, our natural tendency to avoid difference, we tend to *assume similarity* – the first of the six stumbling blocks described. It may be laudable in intent, but the common assumption that ‘being human’ is similarity enough, is naive and likely to doom the assumer to failure. Further, as globalisation proceeds and ‘Western trappings permeate more and more of the world, the illusion of similarity increases. A look-alike façade deceives representatives from contrasting cultures when each wears Western dress, speaks English, and uses similar greeting rituals. It is like assuming that New York City, Tokyo and Tehran are all alike because each has the appearance of a modern city’.

In considering the second stumbling block, that of *language differences*, the witticism referring to the UK and the USA as ‘Two nations divided by a common language’ (attributed alternately to Winston Churchill, Oscar Wilde and George Bernard Shaw) seems particularly apt. When two people from different language backgrounds are using a common language they expect misunderstandings and are more likely to make allowances by, for example, speaking more slowly, enunciating more clearly and using limited simplified vocabulary. However, greater misunderstandings often arise when two people with the same language background assume they are speaking a common language when in fact, as Barna points out, ‘vocabulary, syntax, idioms, slang, dialects, and so on all cause difficulty’. The third stumbling block extends the language differences, considering *nonverbal misinterpretations* – when the facial expressions, gestures and postures that are such an integral part of communication are misunderstood or not even noticed.

The fourth stumbling block presents problems relating to *preconceptions and stereotypes*, which Barna describes as ‘overgeneralized, secondhand beliefs that provide conceptual bases from which we make sense out of what goes on around us, whether or not they are accurate or fit the circumstances.’ In other words, they interfere with our objectivity and prevent us from making a realistic assessment of a situation or person. The fifth stumbling block, the *tendency to evaluate*, relates directly to this, as our stereotypes and preconceptions are the lens through which we view and judge what and who we encounter.

The sixth and final stumbling block, *high anxiety*, ‘often underlies and compounds the other stumbling blocks’ and is therefore, arguably, the most serious. Often referred to as ‘culture shock’ such anxiety can result in sleeplessness, lack of appetite, abnormal emotional reactions such as unprovoked crying or anger, and, in severe cases, even depression. As a subconscious attempt at self-protection, it can provoke hostility against the ‘difference’ that is being experienced. The typical reaction of being hypercritical of the new location, its customs, systems and people is extensively and often painfully illustrated in the personal accounts of Pollock and Van Reken’s *Third Culture Kids* (2001) and the anecdotes highlight the problems raised by Barna’s six stumbling blocks. While important to acknowledge in relation to multiculturalism, their work is looked at in more detail in the section on transition and mobility, as is the work of Storti, who focuses on the difficulties of re-assimilation into one’s own culture after a period away from it (1990, 2001).

International schools could be described as microcosms of our major multicultural urban centres and, just as with those urban centres, it is not enough to put students and staff of different nationalities together in one school building and expect the cross-cultural tolerance, respect and understanding that characterises international-mindedness simply to happen. Working in American cities during serious interracial tensions in the 1940s and following a similar line of reasoning that led Barna to identify her six stumbling blocks, social psychologist R.M. Williams formulated the contact hypothesis (1947). Simply put, the hypothesis is based on the premise that people make assumptions and general suppositions about groups with which they have little direct contact and these assumptions are then assigned to individuals within the group, i.e. stereotyping takes place. By increasing exposure to those groups, stereotyping and accompanying prejudice is decreased and tensions eased.

As noted in outlining my own experience in the introductory chapter, teachers new to and unprepared for international education often believe that this is true of international schools. However, more experienced and better prepared international teachers will appreciate the naivety of this idealistic premise, as did those who refuted Williams hypothesis, most prominently Allport, who claimed that contact alone was ineffective in changing racial attitudes: 'It has sometimes been held that merely by assembling people without regard for race, color, religion, or national origin, we can thereby destroy stereotypes and develop friendly attitudes' (1988, originally 1954, p.261). The basis of his alternative theory was that it is the nature of the contact that is critical in either lessening or increasing prejudice, depending on an extensive range of variables:

- quantitative aspects of the contact, for example, frequency and duration
- status aspects of the contact, for example, perceived inferiority/superiority of individuals and groups
- role aspects of the contact, for example, competitive/cooperative, subordinate/superordinate
- social atmosphere within which the contact takes place, for example, voluntary/mandatory, real/contrived, important/trivial
- personality of individuals involved, for example, age, general education level, prejudice level, emotional security

Allport also considered four different areas of contact: casual, acquaintance, residential and occupational. He found that casual contact with other groups does not decrease prejudice but indeed often increases it, while acquaintance, which involves increased knowledge about the other group, does lessen prejudice and increase tolerance and friendly attitudes. With residential contact he found clear evidence that segregation maintains prejudice, while integration, although often provoking resistance initially, provides opportunities for ongoing neighbourly contact that eventually results in acceptance. In situations of occupational contact he found that the relative status of the jobs has a significant influence: if the other person's job is equal to or higher than yours then prejudice tends to be lessened but if the other person's job is of lower status than yours prejudice tends to be compounded if not actually increased. He concluded that 'Prejudice (unless deeply rooted in the character structure of the individual) may be reduced by equal status contact between majority and minority groups in the pursuit of common goals. The effect is greatly enhanced if this contact is sanctioned by institutional supports (i.e. by law, custom or local atmosphere), and provided it is of a sort that leads to the perception of common interests and common humanity between members of the two groups.' (1988, p.281)

The detail of Allport's contact theory is neatly reformulated in Pettigrew's longitudinal model (cited in Nelson 2006):

↓	Categorization: based on stereotypical assumptions individuals are simply categorized as members of the group they belong to
	Decategorization: individuals begin to see other in terms of personalities and characteristics rather than their group membership
	Salient categorization: individuals are seen as representative of their group so a positive attitude to individuals transfers to a more positive attitude to the group as a whole
	Recategorization: the 'us' and 'them' categories begin to breakdown to form a new 'us' category

No consideration of culture, however brief, would be complete without reference to the work of Geert Hofstede (2001), a firm believer that cultural conflict is more natural than cultural synergy. Through his analysis of 75 nations, he aimed to provide an objective means of describing cultural differences by 'scoring' five dimensions of culture:

- *Power – Distance* describes the nature of power distribution and the extent to which inequalities are accepted and sustained by the culture
- *Individualism - Collectivism* describes the extent to which individuals value, integrate into and rely on groups, as opposed to themselves, for decision-making, jobs, care etc.
- *Masculinity – Femininity* describes the distribution of roles between the genders and the extent to which the culture values and displays traits deemed as masculine such as assertiveness and competitiveness, as opposed to those deemed as feminine, such as modesty and, caring
- *Uncertainty avoidance* describes the culture's tolerance of ambiguity, the extent to which individuals feel comfortable in unstructured, unfamiliar situations, and the extent to which the culture tries to minimise the possibility of such situations arising through laws and regulations.
- *Long-term – Short-term orientation* describes the culture's approach to time and development, and the extent to which it looks and plans ahead, and values legacies and traditions

The resulting score profiles can then be compared – his premise is that when cultures with contrasting profiles meet there is greater potential for cultural conflict. Controversial for its supposed reinforcement of stereotypes, his work is nonetheless fascinating for its insights into dimensions of culture of which we are often unaware. A complementary source of cultural insight is the iceberg model of Fennes and Hapgood (1997), shown in Figure 2. The model lacks Hofstede's detailed analysis and does not look at individual cultures or nations, aiming instead to illustrate the breadth and multifaceted nature of culture. Its analogy is simple and graphic, showing at least two thirds of the cultural dimensions concealed 'below the waterline' or out of normal consciousness (emic), with only a few revealed as typically within normal consciousness (etic). The model's illustration of the mutllayers of culture that lie beneath the surface is particularly applicable to international school settings where attempts to recognise and celebrate cultural diversity are often superficial and contrived (the so-called '4-Fs' of food, festivals, flags and fashions). Even a passing familiarity with such works and a simple appreciation of the ways in which cultures can differ, could help international teachers avoid issues such as unintentionally hostile exchanges with parents caused by cultural misunderstandings.

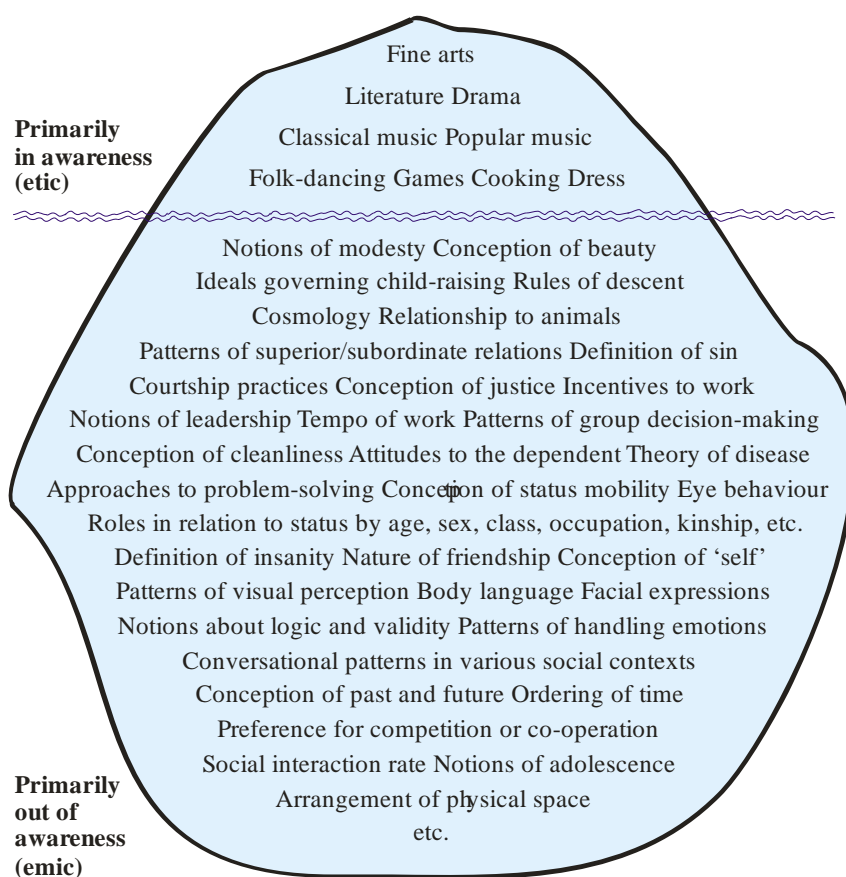


Fig. 2 The cultural iceberg (Fennes and Hapgood 1997)

So, to conclude this first section that has focused on literature relating to culture generically, these theoretical frameworks are of great relevance to international schools, both as an explicit part of an internationalised curriculum that aims to develop more internationally-minded students and as an implicit awareness underlying every type of decision from student admission and placement to staffing and parental involvement.

National aspects of culture

The second category of literature identified, referring to multiculturalism in national settings, is again a vast field, and therefore considered here very briefly and only in relation to its value as another source of education for international teachers. As many nations struggle to deal effectively with increasingly large and diverse immigrant populations, the study of multiculturalism and intercultural relations seems, as might be expected, to be of growing interest, often attracting considerable government funding. While this category of literature is undoubtedly valuable, there is a danger that it might compound stereotypes, as, whichever country is generating it, it usually consists of one (usually dominant) cultural group writing about another (usually less dominant) rather than the group writing about itself. A further reservation, in evidence throughout the global and development education literature (for example, Pike and Selby 1988; Tanner 1996; Young and Commins 2002) is that while its intent is to illustrate aspects of culture in the broader sense mentioned above, it often fails to achieve this, limiting instead to informing only about a particular culture. Tanner's report of student teachers' efforts in exploring and extending children's images of distant places and peoples is particularly illustrative of this. Without undermining the value of the direct achievement

- 'the children's knowledge and therefore perceptions of India had changed dramatically' – it was disappointingly typical that the lessons of greater conceptual value – the metacognitive points relating to, for example, perception, misconception, prejudice, stereotypes - were not attempted or certainly were not made explicit.

Though purely anecdotal, and certainly showing both limitations noted above, some of the most fascinating and enlightening readings in this area were stories written by USA Peace Corps volunteers, actively used by the Peace Corps as a motivator and training tool for new volunteers. Tidwell's *African Sojourn, The Ponds of Kalambayi* (1990), in which she emphasises how the social insight she herself gained from her volunteer work far outweighed the pragmatic benefits to the people she helped, is particularly poignant (and has been independently published), but many other volunteers similarly emphasise the profound effect their intercultural interactions have had on them. With quotes such as, 'I can't believe she used 3 gallons of water to take a bath – you'd think she was washing an elephant!' these firsthand accounts are an invaluable resource for teacher education, as well as offering an authentic source for research purposes. Indeed, inclusion of personal experience seems to be a common feature of this category of literature, and while such practitioner-literature may not fulfil rigorous academic standards or effectively identify key underlying concepts, it can certainly offer very valuable insights that many academic researchers do not have, and with which practising teachers can closely relate.

The International Bureau of Education's study, *Teacher Training and Multiculturalism* avoids both of the problems noted above, providing detailed reports by individual cultures about teacher education within those cultures, as well as synthesising the individual reports into significant generic conceptual insights, conclusions and global recommendations for teacher education reform. From reports analysing teacher education for multiculturalism across eight different countries on four different continents, the study's key conclusion provides a fitting end to this section: 'the critical importance of teachers (*who are*) the most important agents in the socialization process for future generations. It follows that knowing about and intervening in the attitudes of future teachers who will be faced with cultural diversity represents one of the most important lines of preventive action that can be identified at the national and international levels.' (Gagliardi 1995, p.iv)

Transnational aspects of culture

So, to the third category: multicultural literature that relates to the specific context of international education. Though small, this is a very important category of literature, as it examines an unusual situation. Most urban centres worldwide now have wide cultural diversity, but changes to this diversity happen relatively slowly and different cultural groups can (and often do) create monocultural cliques within the wider community, limiting the cross-cultural interactions of individuals. In international schools, however, not only is the diversity more dynamic, with more frequent and rapid changes, but also individuals are forced into constant cross-cultural contact. Building on Allan's concept of cultural dissonance (2002), it would be interesting to compare the number of cross-cultural interactions to the number of cross-cultural clashes (a sort of Cultural Harmony Index) – I believe international schools would score very favourably, and therefore seem worthy of more extensive study as successful models of cultural harmony than previously seems to have been the case.

Allen (2002) identifies several fundamental issues, relating to both a lack, and a surfeit, of cultural diversity within schools, and to relationships both internally and externally. These issues recur throughout the literature as two sides of the same coin, listed here in what seem like naturally opposing pairs:

- (i) the concept of a common culture that unites the international schools 'community' versus the unique culture of each individual school
- (ii) 'the cultural distance between the school and its immediate environs' versus the potential clash of cultures that occurs if this distance is reduced
- (iii) the international school as a purveyor of a culture of international-mindedness versus the international school as a respecter of cultural diversity

If we accept that values are a significant element in creating and maintaining a culture (for example, Hofstede 2001, Walker 2000b, Brown 2002) then international schools can certainly be said to have a common culture insofar as they espouse the values of international-mindedness. Yet Brown's detailed study of assessment using Hofstede's cultural dimensions illustrates a very real example of the contradictory nature of these issues. A school conveys a specific set of values through both what and how it assesses – values that, ideally, are a purposeful reflection of the school's mission statement. While groups of schools may use common forms of assessment based on the curriculum they are using, for example the programmes of the International Baccalaureate, the extent to which these assessments meet the expectations of different cultural groups will be determined by the school's cultural profile – clearly the more diverse the school community, the greater potential for clashes or conflict.

As evidenced by the range of writing on this topic (see especially Willis, Heyward, Walker, Allan, Pearce), assessment is just one example of the cultural dilemmas that international schools, and therefore, international teachers, face. Drake (2004), in his consideration of the cultural challenges created by the increasing expansion of the IBO programmes worldwide, uses his own extensive experience in China as well as drawing heavily on the work of Walker and Dimmock, to discuss many of these dilemmas: for example, how to reconcile current 'best practice' methodologies with the needs of individual students who have come from and will likely return to, very traditional classrooms; how to determine learning outcomes that are appropriate for students who may differ in their previous school experience by 2-3 years; how to encourage study behaviours that are in stark contrast with home culture expectations; and how to nurture a common level of teacher professionalism while respecting each individual's right to be individual. These, and many more examples, are compounded by the further, more generic, challenge of defining, talking about and understanding culture in the 'unique educational institutions' that are international schools (Willis 2004).

It seems appropriate that the final part of this review of the literature of multiculturalism should focus on a phenomenon that arises directly from this uniqueness - the so-called Third Culture identified by Drs. John and Ruth Useem in the early 1950s (2008). Based on the Useems' work, the term Third Culture Kids was originally used to describe 'anyone of any nationality who has lived outside their parents' country of origin (or their 'passport' country) before adulthood because of a parent's occupation' (Pollock and Van Reken 2001). 'Being raised in a genuinely cross-cultural...and highly mobile world', the individual uniqueness of TCKs, as with international schools, is a fundamental factor of their common culture. Given that 'the entire cultural world they live in can change overnight with a single airplane ride' TCKs often develop the intercultural literacy that Heyward (2002) deems 'a crucial element in the creation of a safe, sustainable and just global community'.

Originally concerned only with children who were moved involuntarily due to a parent's occupation, TCK (and the synonymous term Global Nomads, attributed to Norma McCaig 1996) is now often used more inclusively to describe all expatriates who have a lifestyle much different from either their home culture (their first culture) or their host country culture (their second culture). While those included in this broader definition undoubtedly have many common lifestyle characteristics, it would seem likely that the level of intercultural literacy developed might be significantly different in those who are involuntary TCKs from birth or early childhood, and those who elect to become expatriates once adult. Indeed my own experience of adult expatriates is that they often resist developing intercultural literacy, instead hanging onto their 'first culture' more tightly than they ever would if they were still living in it. Involuntary Third Culture Kids do not have this option, as their sense of 'first culture' has never been fully developed.

This seems to be an area of culture that is far from fully explored, and, given the pace of globalisation and the associated multiculturalisation of our communities and schools, that warrants much more extensive research and analysis. Much of the literature is written from a US perspective, and it would be fascinating to have the perspectives of other nationalities revealed - indeed, it would seem that the whole premise of a common third culture can only be truly validated if considered from a wider range of perspectives.

In order to 'employ strategies that facilitate the academic achievement of students from diverse cultural groups' (Snowball 2007) there is clearly much for international teachers to know and to understand about culture. Given the extensive diversity of many schools, even the best prepared teachers are unlikely to be appropriately informed about every culture they deal with. It is important, therefore, that they understand something of the three levels described above so that they are: (i) informed generically about what culture is; (ii) knowledgeable specifically about the main cultures of the countries they are living in and working with; and (iii) aware personally of the 'third' expatriate culture that they themselves belong to. If we support Heyward's (2002) call for intercultural literacy as a crucial element in the education of international school students, then it must first be considered a crucial element in the education of international teachers.

Issue (iv) Multilingualism

The fourth issue constantly debated in international education is language, specifically, multilingualism, and again, the terminology needs to be clarified before we proceed. The range of terms and acronyms used is vast, and constantly changing for reasons of political correctness, responsiveness to research findings or simply in line with a new fad. ESL (English as a Second Language), EAL (English as an Additional Language), ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages), LOTE (Languages other than English), ELL (English Language Learners), L2L (Second language learners), LEP (Limited English Proficiency), MLS (Minority Language Speakers) and FL (Foreign language) are all in common use. The term Bilingual is also often used, somewhat casually, especially by schools, for while it may be a reasonable description of the programme being offered (i.e. conducted in 2 languages) it is rarely an accurate term for the students within it (the generally accepted definition of bilingual being near-native fluency in 2 languages).

Despite the range of choice of terms, none seems quite right for my purposes. Those referring to English exclude international schools working in other languages and promote the 'linguistic imperialism' so strongly criticised by Grimshaw (2007). Those referring to second language ignore the reality that a large proportion of international school students are learning not their second but their third or fourth language and also assume a dominant first language, effectively excluding simultaneous bilinguals who acquire two languages at the same time. Those using terms such as Minority, Foreign or Limited Proficiency have negative connotations and seem to degrade the richness of these students' language profiles. As De Mejia illustrates in her very comprehensive *Power, Prestige and Bilingualism* (2002), it is almost impossible to provide hard and fast definitions and distinctions and so I choose to use the term multilingual, as being positive and all-inclusive, referring to the practical daily use of more than one language.

That multilingualism is a reality for a large proportion of the world's population is well documented in national and international statistics. For example, of the 162 countries or territories in UNESCO's *World Culture Report 2000* (UNESCO 2000), 36 have two or more official languages, and 37 have more than fifty languages spoken: only 7 (4%) are listed as having only a single language in daily use. Indeed, multilingualism is the natural way of life for hundreds of millions all over the world...with around 5,000 languages co-existing in fewer than 200 countries (Crystal 1997).

Not only is this world language landscape complex, but it is also constantly changing. Wikipedia (2008) lists several hundred extinct languages (defined as having no living speakers) while Ethnologue (Gordon 2005) lists over five hundred that are classified as endangered (defined as either having fewer than one thousand speakers or in rapid decline as they are no longer being actively taught to younger generations). While not yet endangered, about half of the known languages have fewer than three thousand speakers and so are expected to become extinct within the next century, yet there are also examples of successful language revivals (for example, Welsh and Catalan) and languages with a rapidly increasing number of speakers such as Chinese (as a first language) and English (as a second language). Add in other developments, for example, the explicit ambition of many Asian countries to ensure that their next generations learn English, for Australians to learn Asian languages, or the freedom of movement granted by the further expansion of the European Union, and it is apparent that the educational implications are significant. 2004-05 statistics show that in the USA alone there were 5.1 million English Language Learners (meaning non-English mother-tongue speakers) between the ages of 5 and 17 years, representing 60% growth since 1994-95 (compared with 2.5% growth overall in this age group) (National Clearing House for English Language Acquisition 2000, 2004).

Its fundamental nature; its relationship to cognition, self-esteem, cultural identity and general development; and the sheer scale of the figures for the world's multilingual population, mean that language has popular and political as well as academic appeal, and the range of literature is correspondingly vast.

A brief review of recent history shows the psychological and social insights of Chomsky, Bruner, Bettelheim, Vygotsky and Halliday in the 1960s being applied in educational texts in the 1970s and 80s by many, including Cashdan, Meek, Hall, Barnes and Britton, serving to bridge the gap somewhat between academic and practitioner literature. In the same era, Ken and Yetta Goodman spearheaded the 'Whole Language' movement, which revolutionised language teaching, creating the integrated models we commonly see in place today. More recently, general interest books, both from

mainstream authors (amongst others, Bragg 2003, Truss 2003, de Boinod 2007) and from academics such as Crystal (1997, 1998) and Pinker (1994), have promoted 'informed awareness' in the public and popularised language and associated issues, while papers such as *Seven hundred reasons for studying languages* (Gallagher-Brett 2004) have sought to encourage UK students both to begin and to sustain language study in school. Scientific advances in neurolinguistics, as well as significantly increasing specialist understanding of language processes, have also contributed to heightened public awareness and interest, and last, but certainly not least, the general globalisation trend, with its associated economic opportunities, increasing migration and rising number of multilinguals creating pressure on the education (and other) systems of many countries, has increased political awareness and involvement. Language is currently a very hot topic.

My own involvement with language education began with my role as a special needs teacher: a summer teaching profoundly deaf children, followed by ten years teaching children who, because of a range of physical, emotional and intellectual damage, were also, as a consequence, linguistically dysfunctional. Although the labelling used then was unrefined and politically incorrect by current standards, the deaf, autistic and Tourette's students I taught were fascinating linguistically, and I had the good fortune of working alongside and learning from several excellent speech and language pathologists. The next twenty years spent in international schools both broadened my experience of and deepened my interest in the complex processes of language learning.

For the purposes of this thesis I have limited myself to the consideration of recent literature dealing with multilingualism in an educational context, with specific focus on what are, in my experience, the main issues facing international school teachers - namely, how to help students:

- 'use all their languages optimally
- maintain their mother-tongue
- become comfortable with their multilingualism
- see multilingualism as an asset
- have access to multilingual resources' (Snowball 2005)

An ongoing question underlying this is why do some students fail to learn optimally in multilingual situations, while others thrive in the same environments? Krashen (1981, 1982), Cummins (1994), and Thomas and Collier (1997, 2002) are among the most prominent researchers to pursue this question, looking at the factors affecting language learning and how these vary in first and subsequent languages. Although they have worked almost exclusively with students in national systems (in this case, the USA), their work is invaluable in its application to the international school context and provided the starting point for a long-term research project begun by a group of international school educators in 2003. The ESL/MT Research Group, of which I was part, sought to foster research in the area of second-language and mother-tongue provision in English-speaking international schools, by considering the factors affecting student learning. Initial work suggested three separate, though overlapping, areas of investigation: factors arising from students themselves (for example, individual language profiles, learning disabilities, previous school experiences and transition issues); factors arising from teachers (for example, teacher preparation, teaching style, programme, resources); and factors arising from school governance and administration (for example, curriculum frameworks, language policies, scheduling). Members of the group have already published research into several of these factors providing the foundations of a valuable base of practitioner literature - for example, Snowball's

development of a language curriculum model for international schools (1997a), Sear's handbook for teachers of second language students (1998), Gallagher's investigation of early childhood exposure to additional languages (2001), Kusuma-Powell's consideration of functionally multilingual students (2004), and Carder's proposed model of bilingual education (2007).

This research has already raised fundamental questions about how schools organise their language programmes. While there may be an underlying element of idealism in constructing the programme, 'who takes which languages when' is usually determined by a range of pragmatic factors, which are likely to include some or all of the following:

- Budget – financial questions are always fundamental to any programme decisions. Language programmes are expensive to run, especially if students are given a choice of languages as group numbers are then unpredictable, which makes staffing costs unpredictable. Scheduling also has budgetary implications as language teachers are often only needed part-time but actual lesson timings mean they must be employed full-time.
- Current world or regional trends – schools will often try to offer languages based on what is currently, or what seems likely to become, popular, for example, the current demand for Polish in the UK. Such trends can be difficult to predict however, and a substantial lead-in time is needed for adequate staffing and programme development.
- Grants and subsidies available – these are often linked to world or regional trends, through one governmental group or short-term initiative, for example the funding of Arabic programmes through the Strategic Language Initiative in the USA. They are therefore subject to change, but schools can still benefit greatly, especially in establishing new language programmes. Another useful source of funding is embassies (for example, those of Sweden and The Netherlands) that subsidise mother-tongue teachers for their national citizens.
- Parental preferences – the current make-up of the school community may generate demand for a particular language. For example, in Amsterdam, as our community became less European and more American, the demand for Spanish as a second language increased and the demand for French decreased.
- Competitor schools' programmes – again often linked to world or regional trends, schools may choose to initiate a language programme in order to gain a competitive edge over other schools, for example, trying to be the first school to offer a new language, or offering it in direct competition because another school already does.
- Local and national education regulations – some countries and regions require particular languages to be taught (for example, German in Germany and Austria; Catalan in north-eastern Spain). This can be a problem for schools with transient populations if the required language is a minority language, as it may clash with other factors such as world trends or parental preference.
- Availability of teachers – for international schools in the major, more cosmopolitan, capital cities finding language teachers is usually easy but for others it often causes real problems. The result is that in many international schools the language teachers may not be appropriately qualified, trained or even experienced. A further difficulty relates to the scheduling of languages, already mentioned in the budget paragraph, as teachers may not want to take a job that only pays part-time but that in fact requires much more time at school.
- Time slots in the schedule – scheduling language lessons is fraught with difficulties and the scheduler must balance the arguments for regular, shorter

sessions favoured by most language teachers or fewer, longer sessions that minimise passing time and maximise learning time, with the need to avoid fragmented schedules for individual teachers who are often only employed part-time. Typically language teachers are allocated two or three slots of 30-45 minutes per week, which most would feel is not enough.

Once decisions are made about which languages to offer, how and when they will be scheduled, and who will take them, it is essential that this information is made explicit to parents as part of the admissions process. Equally essential is that the school gets a comprehensive picture of each student, for, as Sears emphasises (1998 p.17), in describing international school families, 'children's linguistic histories vary greatly.' She goes on to explain that '...many non-English-speaking families choose to place their children in English-medium international schools, since English-speaking schools now exist in most of the major cities in the world. In this way, they can minimise the disruption caused by frequent moves. For many parents, a further attraction of English-medium international schools is the opportunity for their children to acquire English. English is not the most spoken first language in the world, but it is the world language of business, international diplomacy and numerous technical areas. Parents who send their children to international schools are typically employed in organisations that require the use of more than one language. Such parents place a high value on their children becoming bilingual, if not multilingual. These families have high expectations for their children, often including the possibility of higher education in one of the English-speaking countries. The parents tend to be well-educated themselves, to travel widely and to speak a number of languages. They retain a high sense of esteem in relation to their own culture and language and expect at some time to return to their home country. On their return, they expect their children to re-enter their national school systems. They choose an English-medium education for their children as a way of better equipping them for the sort of world in which they will live and work' (p.6-7).

Such parental expectations are central to the complex language picture of international schools, and one of a school's key responsibilities is to advise parents on the implications of particular educational choices. From personal experience as an international school teacher and administrator, I am very aware of the difficulties that poorly-informed choices can create between the school and the parents, as well as for the students themselves, and such difficulties are often caused by significant misconceptions about language learning that are held by both parents and educators.

The first is the most significant and directly influences the others, as it 'involves confusion between the surface or conversational aspects of children's language and the deeper aspects of proficiency that are more closely related to conceptual and academic development...specifically, students' conversational fluency in English is taken as a valid reflection of their overall proficiency in the language...' (Cummins 1994, p.37-39) (In Cummins earlier work he introduced the terms *basic interpersonal communicative skills* (BICS) and *cognitive academic language proficiency* (CALP) to distinguish between these two aspects of language, terms which are now routinely used by language teachers.) This confusion leads to the misconception that children with limited conversational fluency in English have limited general academic ability, and conversely, that adequate conversational fluency in English indicates adequate academic functioning in English. Both can lead to inappropriately high or low expectations and even to students being incorrectly labelled as having learning difficulties when in fact they are simply in the normal stages of language learning.

The second misconception relates to the amount of time taken to learn languages and the general belief that the younger the child, the more quickly they learn. 'How long will my child take to learn English?' is one of the most frequently asked questions during international school admissions, and schools and teachers need to be able to give informed answers. Large-scale studies in the USA in the 1980s (Cummins 1981; Collier 1987 and 1989, cited in Cummins 1994) indicated that while children needed, on average, 2 years to reach native-speaker equivalent levels of conversational proficiency, they needed 5-7 years to reach equivalent levels of academic proficiency. Cummins attributes this time difference to the fundamental difference between the two aspects of language: for BICS, children need less language knowledge, they have more contextual clues available, and generally the rate of development of native-speakers' language has levelled off by about the age of six; by contrast, for CALP, children need increasingly sophisticated language knowledge, have fewer contextual clues available, and their native-speaking peers' academic language is also continuing to develop at a rapid rate, which equates to trying to catch up with a constantly moving target. Regarding actual age, Cummins (1994) (citing Krashen 1979 and Wong Fillmore 1991) suggests that while young children certainly absorb languages easily, children between the ages of 9 and 13 are more efficient second language learners, i.e. they learn more in a shorter time, probably because they have reached the stage of brain development that Piaget calls 'abstract-thought', and because they already have a good base in their first language which is transferred to learning the second language. After the age of 13 there seems to be a decline in efficiency, attributed to the emotional turmoil and intense self-consciousness that characterises the early teens. It is also important for international teachers to be aware that, while young children do seem to handle multiple languages simultaneously with relative ease, they can experience temporary problems such as mixing of languages (for example, using 'Spanglish') or a period of elective mutism. There is also considerable evidence that consecutive, rather than simultaneous, development of literacy skills is more effective, i.e. they should learn to read and write in one language first before learning to read and write in another (Cummins 1984, cited in Cummins 1994). My own experience with students in international schools suggests that even a time gap of two to three months seems to have a marked positive effect.

The third misconception is that providing the family continues to speak the child's mother-tongue at home, the child will have little difficulty resuming education in that language when they return to their home country. As was demonstrated in the previous paragraph, while it is likely that the child's oral, social language will continue to develop at a similar pace to home country peers, it is unlikely, without intensive structured teaching, that their academic language will do so. Indeed, even with ongoing mother-tongue support, maintaining language at a level that allows a smooth return to home country schooling is a challenge. In general, the longer the student is out of the home country system, the greater the language gap and, therefore, the more difficult the reintegration.

Given the fundamental nature of language in international schools, it seems surprising that such significant misconceptions can persist, not only for parents, but also, in my experience, for a worryingly high proportion of teachers, and this can only strengthen the case for specialised preparation for international teachers. 'Reform initiatives which do not tackle (the) underlying convictions held by teachers are unlikely to succeed' (Osterman and Kottcamp, cited in Pantazi 2006).

Such misconceptions notwithstanding, schools must still organise their language programmes, which, as illustrated in Figure 3, often consist of several different

elements. In the following paragraphs, some of the requirements and challenges of each element will be considered.

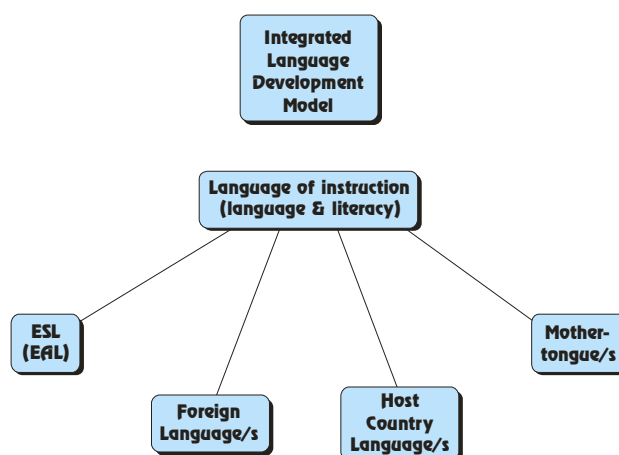


Fig. 3 Integrated Language Development Model (Snowball 2000)

Language of instruction

Clearly the school's main focus is its main language/s of instruction. (For all the schools considered in this thesis this includes English, and so the language of instruction is referred to as English hereafter.) Schools serving mainly expatriate families might typically have up to half of their students not speaking English, while schools serving mainly host country nationals might have nearer 100 % non-English speakers. In both cases, significant support must be given to ensure students acquire English as quickly and easily as possible. Rossell (2005) describes the six most commonly used approaches: *structured* or *sheltered immersion* that provides instruction almost entirely in English in a self-contained classroom consisting only of English language learners; *pullout* that supplements mainstream classroom instruction through small group support; *sink-or-swim* that places students in mainstream classrooms with no special help or scaffolding; *transitional bilingual* programmes that focus on developing English but initially use students' first languages; *two-way* or *bilingual immersion* that uses both languages simultaneously in classes consisting of both native English speakers and non-English speakers; and *bilingual maintenance* that focuses on developing English proficiency as well as maintaining students' first languages. Schools will have one or more of these approaches in place and teachers will need to have a range of strategies appropriate to the type of support their students will receive. It should be noted that international teachers need to adapt not only to the different approaches schools use but also to the wide variety of titles and acronyms used, for example, to list only a small selection, English as a Second Language (ESL), English as an Additional Language (EAL), English Language Learners (ELL), Second Language Learners (L2L), Mother-tongue (MT), First Language (L1), Languages Other Than English (LOTE), Modern Foreign Languages (MFL), Host Country Language (HCL).

Host country language

Most international schools offer the host country language, either because they are required to by national or local regulations, because they choose to as a mark of respect for the host country and a means of helping students settle in their new location, or as part of a bilingual programme combined, for example, with English. But host country

programmes are often sources of controversy. The main focus of the controversy is generally the amount of time given to the host country language relative to the overall time available for language instruction. When the host country language is a minority language its very inclusion in the programme is likely to be questioned by transient expatriate parents, as, for example, in my experience in Hungary and The Netherlands. Such parents argue that the language is of no use once they leave the country for their next assignment and that therefore the limited time allocated for language learning should focus purely on the main language of instruction. Indeed one Romanian family felt so strongly about this that for several weeks they boycotted Dutch classes for their daughter and ultimately removed her from the school. Conversely, parents who are host country nationals may want as much time to be spent on the host country language as on the main language of instruction. Local teachers are often strong advocates of this also, both because they are more comfortable working in their own language, and because they feel it contributes significantly to maintaining the country's language and culture.

Host country languages that are also significant world languages generally cause less controversy and questions are more likely to focus on the amount of time allocated and when students should start the programme. There is a big question, for example, over whether students should begin to study the host country language at the same time as they are learning the language of instruction, thus learning two new languages simultaneously. This practice is used by some international schools, often for reasons of scheduling expediency, or, with 'high-status' (Sears 1998) or 'dominant' (de Mejia 2002) languages, because of pressure from parents to start as soon as possible. As indicated earlier in this chapter, while this may be feasible for children, it may not be the most desirable model, and other schools wait until students 'exit' from English support classes (i.e. they have achieved a level of proficiency that allows them to function independently in the mainstream classroom) before beginning the host country language.

Foreign languages

A foreign language can be defined as 'a language not used as a regular or frequent means of communication within a particular country...the language is 'foreign' in the sense that it is the language of a community which is outside national boundaries...As opportunities for contact with a foreign language are necessarily limited in the student's daily life, there is often need for higher levels of formal instruction in order to develop an appropriate level of foreign language proficiency' (de Mejia 2002, p.46).

So, how do international schools choose which foreign languages to offer? My own experience, confirmed by the extensive examples included in de Mejia's work and a quick scan of schools' websites, is that, aside from host country languages, the range of foreign languages offered is extremely limited. While no centralised body is dictating, or even suggesting, which languages should be offered, French and Spanish dominate the list, followed by Japanese, Chinese and German. Arabic, Russian, Hindi, Urdu and Portuguese, all of which appear in the world's top ten most spoken languages, do not get a look in (although many of them are offered to native speakers through the mother-tongue programmes that are discussed in the following section). There are instances where languages that are offered primarily as mother-tongues, are also offered as foreign languages, for example Dutch, presumably to optimise the availability of teachers, who, as previously mentioned, may be subsidised or provided through the embassy.

The way in which schools choose which languages to offer is not clear. One could assume that location might play a part, with schools choosing the languages of neighbouring countries; or parental preference, although in most international schools this would usually be too short-term to be viable; or those languages acknowledged as international or world languages, for example, those used as official languages of the United Nations; or, as suggested above, those languages most widely spoken. While undoubtedly, each of these factors plays some part in the decisions of some schools, there seems to be little consistency either in the way schools choose, or in the languages they offer. The only element of consistency seems to be where a school has, or previously had, strong ties with a home country. So, for example, most British international schools will offer French, which, traditionally, is the main foreign language offered by schools in Britain, and most American international schools offer Spanish. Clearly these choices may also tie into the parental preferences of a dominant home-country national group, who may be more likely to return to the home-country education system. Colonial heritage may also be an influence, as for example in Hong Kong, where, due to its former British ties, French is still the main foreign language offered in many schools.

In general, foreign language programmes seem much slower to respond to change than do other language programmes, and while many schools are initiating innovative mother-tongue and bilingual programmes, those same schools are frequently continuing to offer foreign language programmes that are out of date. Based on extensive work with a wide range of schools, it is also my contention that the same is true of foreign language practices (supported by the frequency with which schools' foreign language programmes are identified in accreditation reports as in need of improvement), and this would seem to be a valuable area for further study.

Mother-tongue languages

Many international schools provide support for students who do not speak the school's working language/s and most provide instruction in other foreign languages, yet relatively few support the mother-tongue languages of their students in any substantial, structured way. Unfortunately, even in multilingual settings, at best most educators are unaware of the importance of continuing mother-tongue development, and at worst many outdated practices are still in use. For example, it is common to find schools encouraging students and parents to stop using their mother-tongue at home in the mistaken belief that this will speed up development of the new language. In fact, both neurological and educational research strongly suggests that the opposite is true – maintaining mother-tongue language development has a significant positive effect on the acquisition of the subsequent languages. Thomas and Collier (1997, 2002), for example, provide conclusive evidence that continued mother-tongue support in school yields improved long-term academic achievement. 'English learners need on-grade-level instruction in their first language while they are learning English, the same cognitive development opportunities as native-English speakers receive, and continued assistance after they enter the regular instructional programme.' The continued development of mother-tongue at home is particularly important if mother-tongue support is not available at school.

Yet Thomas and Collier also documented widespread parental misunderstandings in the USA about the benefits of such language support, and I have personally found similar misunderstandings worldwide. For example, during extensive work with bilingual teachers in Peru, lack of parental understanding and cooperation was reported as a major

factor in the failure of bilingual programmes (Snowball 2000), and as a school head in The Netherlands, I constantly had to counsel Japanese and Korean parents to prevent them abandoning their own language at home and, instead, speaking very poor English with their children. As a result of such misconceptions, thousands of intelligent and otherwise high-achieving students graduate every year functionally illiterate in their mother-tongue, and, especially in international schools, whose *raison d'être* is precisely to serve such students, teachers must take a large part of the responsibility for dispelling the parental ignorance. One can argue of course that the real fault lies with teacher education programmes that are so limited in their preparation of teachers for the current multilingual educational world.

Better educating the educators however, is not the only answer, as even those schools that do understand the importance of mother-tongue are often unable to facilitate an effective support programme for logistical reasons. As mentioned earlier in this section, finding teachers who are appropriately qualified and trained is often a real challenge, while locating and selecting resources in a multitude of languages, budget considerations, schedule slots and even teaching spaces also often limit what can be offered.

Yet despite such significant constraints, there are excellent models in operation, for example, the International School of London, whose programme currently includes, within the regular school timetable, around 16 different mother-tongue languages. ISL commits to provide a mother-tongue teacher at no additional cost to parents whenever there is a group of five or more students for any language and with a small supplementary charge even for individual students. Examples in other schools include a designated day each week when all classes are conducted in mother-tongue languages; groups of schools creating combined programmes; after-school classes; and a phenomenon well known to many international school educators, the Saturday schools of the Japanese and Korean communities.

To conclude this section on teaching in multilingual classrooms, another group of schools should be mentioned: the European Schools. Though they are somewhat separate from the international schools sector to which I mainly refer, and though the expanded European Community means they are struggling with many aspects of their linguistic policies and structures, the European Schools are, in many respects, models of multilingual integration. 'These schools have existed since 1958 and have acquired a solid reputation for scholastic achievement, linguistic equity, multilingual proficiency among the pupils and the promotion of multicultural awareness' (Baetens Beardsmore 1993).

The schools primarily serve the children of employees of the European Union organisations, although children of any European Union national are eligible, space permitting. The underlying philosophy guarantees the continued development of each student's first language and culture, together with the development of a broader European identity. Each student is assigned to a specific linguistic sub-section where they work in their first language combined with a chosen second language. They are expected to develop academic competence, to the extent of being able to sit examinations, in both languages. Study of a third language as an additional subject is compulsory and a fourth optional. Organisationally, students from the different linguistic sub-sections are combined in various ways for the various language choices, so working in integrated, as well as self-contained, language classes. As such, these

schools offer a unique combination of mother-tongue, host country and foreign language support.

The volume of research into multilingual education originating in North American (Beardsmore quotes Cummins' 1991 estimate of more than 1000 studies of bilingual immersion education in Canada alone) tends to overshadow Europe's wealth of experience, despite its history of bilingual education going back over several millennia. Whereas the North American literature focuses almost exclusively on a single dominant second language (Spanish in the USA, French in Canada), the range of models outlined in *European Models of Bilingual Education* (Baetens Beardsmore 1993, p.16) provides potentially valuable insights for international schools, sharing as they do, wide diversity of languages. Examples such as reversing the decay of Welsh, 'widely regarded by *school headteachers* as an inferior language and certainly an unnecessary one'; reinstating Basque and Catalan from 'Low' to 'High' language status; and educating the entire school population trilingually in Luxembourg, all emphasise that affirmative policy making and explicit positive discrimination in schools and curricula is essential for success.

Of the key international education issues I highlight in this literature review and throughout this thesis, multilingualism is the most widely addressed both in the literature and in practice. Most teacher education programmes worldwide include courses (albeit often optional) for teaching multilingual students. Many also include provision for temporary international assignments or exchanges, the contexts usually determined by the host country's closest international connections, often economic and colonial in nature. Few programmes however include preparation for, or even acknowledgement of, international education in the context used in this thesis, and the literature on traits of effective teachers consistently failed to refer explicitly to teachers' language knowledge and skills.

With the number of international schools poised to expand dramatically over the next decade, there is a clear need both for more literature and more provision of teacher education, specifically and practically grounded in the international school context.

Issue (v) Transition and mobility

As demonstrated earlier in this thesis, worldwide mobility is increasing rapidly and, despite short-term localised dips in the trend, such as those caused by the 1996 Asian economic crisis and the 2001 Twin Towers disaster, there is significant evidence that it will continue to increase. In addition to international mobility, a parallel trend shows increased intranational mobility, caused by significant decreases in job tenure within national systems worldwide. For example, the UK Office for National Statistics (Macauley 2003) reports that 'In 1996 half of all employees had been working for the same firm for five years or less. This had fallen to four years by 2001.' Similar situations are apparent in countries as far apart as Australia, USA, China and Peru, with rural-urban migration further emphasising the trends. As might be expected, such trends appear stronger in younger age groups, hence the predictions of continuing increases, and clearly such increases have significant implications for schools and teachers, not least in the areas of culture and language discussed above. The issues of transition and geographical mobility are key to international educators, being one of the defining features of many international schools, which may have 20-30% annual student turnover, and commonly have individual students who stay as little as 3-6 months.

Whilst movement of people is not new, this is a new style of mobility, consciously and purposefully chosen, with the recipients demanding equal or better quality of lifestyle in their new destinations, including the quality of education for their children. Internationally-mobile families may not be happy with host-country education, as this often necessitates their children learning in a series of new languages within completely alien systems – instead they demand continuity and consistency, programmes based on their own home-country system or tailor-made to be compatible with other programmes in other countries that have been or might be lived in. In addition to the practical challenges presented by the multicultural and multilingual diversity such mobility creates, the transition itself can also raise significant issues, ranging from minor settling-in adjustments to more serious problems. Such issues affect not only students, but parents and teachers themselves, and international teachers need to be ‘sensitive to the difficulties transition can cause and, in addition to handling personal stresses effectively, be skilled in supporting students and parents.’ (Snowball 2007)

Much of the literature on transition issues comes from the work on Third Culture Kids and Global Nomads introduced in the preceding section and will be the main focus of this section. I also briefly considered the field of traveller education, which seemed to share the problem of continuity that is fundamental to the mobile communities of international schools. I found however that this field did not provide the parallels I had expected with international education. In fact, most literature on traveller education (for example, Lloyd, Stead & Jordan 1999; Padfield & Jordan 2004; Bhopal 2004; Danaher, Coombes & Kiddle 2007) concludes that the lack of continuity is not the most significant problem compared to other issues such as negative parental attitude (lack of commitment, mistrust of the system); poor parental education (especially low literacy levels); lack of curricular relevance and adaptability; discipline problems; and serious prejudice and racism in schools against traveller students - thankfully, problems that are not shared by international schools. While I did not find what I expected, there was one important parallel – the emphasis on appropriate preparation for teachers and the common need for specialised knowledge, skills and understandings related to the specific educational context: appreciation of the culture, student characteristics, transition and mobility issues, and the curriculum adaptations needed to effectively educate students in a unique context.

The effects of mobility on the educational, personal and social development of international school students have been the subject of many studies, although I found several areas in need of further research. In her study of the life histories of a group of former international school students, Fail (2007, p.105) describes the background literature as ‘oscillating between positive outcomes emphasizing the benefits of being a TCK and negative reports focusing on associated psychological problems’ - divergent findings that are hardly surprising given the diversity of the people categorised as TCKs. As noted in the introduction to this section, transition issues can range from minor settling-in adjustments to more serious problems, and while it is probably fair to assume that everyone will experience the former to some extent, Fail seems to suggest that reports of more serious or long-term psychological problems are based on studies of limited scope and with limited participants, and actually only represent a very small percentage of TCKs.

Schwarzberg and Parenteau (2004) also challenged the widely held assumption that transition is traumatic for students and that traumatised students cannot learn

effectively. Studying a group of international school students in Argentina they found that while transient students did experience social adaptation difficulties, there was no significant damage to academic achievement, and some suggestion in fact that there may be benefits as students develop adaptive capacities. Useem's 1992 study also supports this view, with the 700 American TCKs surveyed reporting many positive effects of their experience:

- stronger than average commitment to tertiary education with a resultant 81% graduating from college (compared to 21% of the American population)
- continued international connections
- ability to speak more foreign languages
- more adaptable, empathetic and gregarious, relating easily to a wide range of people and situations
- better problem solvers

Useem concludes that although many reported difficulties with re-entry into the USA, and a permanent feeling of 'difference', the TCKs surveyed generally credit their third culture background with positively influencing their adult lives. 'In an era when global vision is an imperative, when skills in intercultural communication, linguistic ability, mediation, diplomacy, and the management of diversity are critical, global nomads are better equipped in these areas by the age of eighteen than are many adults' (McCaig, 1996 cited in Pollock and Van Reken, 2001, p.121).

One of the most common problems related to transition is homesickness or nostalgia, seemingly simple and therefore underestimated, yet often the root cause of many more complex symptoms. For example, according to the Neue Herder encyclopedia of 1949, 'Homesickness...can become intense enough to cause morbid depression with a loss of appetite and strength.' The concept is described in literature as old as Homer's Odyssey, and has attracted the attention of physicians, anthropologists and psychologists across the ages and across cultures, for example Hofer, to whom the first use of the term nostalgia is attributed in 1688, and Greverus, whom Blicke (2002) describes as 'summarising three centuries of research on homesickness thus: "egotistical people with immobile minds incapable of adjustments"'.

Powell's writing on the subject (he uses the terms culture shock or relocation stress) is more sympathetic, convincingly combining personal experience with neurological and psychological research evidence (2001). His analysis of the underlying causes and links to individual psychological profiles contribute to a very powerful text that generates four points of fundamental importance for international teachers:

- 'one doesn't grow out of 'culture shock', nor do frequent relocations provide an immunity to it'
- while children, on average, take about 6 months to settle into a new environment, adults can take up to 18 months
- relocation stress thrives in the absence of its own recognition
- it is part of a process, and therefore, however painful, it is only temporary

Teachers therefore should be prepared for the transition stress they themselves are likely to experience, and expect it not only in each student but also in their parents, both incoming and outgoing. Clearly, the main concern is to facilitate as smooth a transition

as possible for students, and Snowball (2002b, 2003, 2005) suggests a range of arrival and departure activities, at both individual classroom and whole school level. They should be aware that transition stress often begins sub-consciously long before there is conscious awareness – especially in young children, they may even experience the stress before they know there is to be a transition if they sense that their parents are unsettled or acting differently.

The multiplicity of models of transition is reviewed thoroughly by Heyward (2000), from the simple 3-stage U-curve models of the early 1950s which viewed culture shock as an ailment to be overcome, to the more sophisticated models of the 1980s and 1990s which described more stages in more detail and regarded the transition as a cognitive learning experience rather than merely an emotional shock. Later models also took into account the hugely significant ‘compatibility factor’ – the extent to which one culture is accepted by or compatible with another, and therefore the potential for Allan’s ‘cultural dissonance’. Situations with low compatibility, and therefore high potential for cultural dissonance, have been the most popular for studies, the starker contrasts seemingly more appealing (for example, the contrasting of Japanese and American cultures by Hartung 2004, and Kondo and Willis 1995). However, as Pollock and Van Reken (2001) show with their simple but effective ‘false expectations grid’ (Fig. 4), it is often in situations with less stark contrasts – for example, in the case of the ‘hidden immigrant’ - that there are more difficulties and greater stress.

<p>Foreigner Look different Think different</p>	<p>Hidden Immigrant Look alike Think different</p>
<p>Adopted Look different Think alike</p>	<p>Mirror Look alike Think alike</p>

Fig. 4 Relational patterns (Pollock and Van Reken 2001)

The immigrant who is a *Foreigner* looks physically different and thinks in different ways from the local population. Because of the difference in physical appearance, their differences in ways of thinking and acting are anticipated and therefore inadvertent errors are less likely to cause surprise or offence. In general, therefore, the potential for cultural dissonance is deemed to be lower.

The *Adopted* immigrant looks physically different but has been in the host country for so long that their ways of thinking and acting are similar to those of the local population. Because of the difference in physical appearance, however, they are likely to still be treated as foreigners. The potential for cultural dissonance is therefore deemed to be higher.

The *Hidden* immigrant looks physically similar to the local population, but thinks and acts differently. Because of the physical similarity, there is an assumption of similar ways of thinking and acting. Inadvertent errors are more likely to cause surprise and offence, and therefore the potential for cultural dissonance is deemed to be higher.

The *Mirror* immigrant looks, thinks and acts like one of the local population, and for all intents and purposes, is treated as one, although they may still hold a passport of a different nation.

While this simple categorisation will resonate with many international migrants, it might also be considered too simplistic, and the following factors must also be taken into account:

1. it is questionable to assume that after a particular length of time lived in a host country, immigrants think and act in ways that are similar to the local population – in fact, the opposite would often seem to be the case, with immigrants fiercely guarding their ‘foreignness’ and adopting a more patriotic stance than they did back home
2. while immigrants may adopt ways of acting that are more in keeping with the local population, such ways of behaving cannot be assumed to indicate that their way of thinking is similar
3. if indeed people do move from being foreigners to adopted immigrants, then there is obviously overlap between categories, where characteristics of both exist – this cannot be shown on a simple four-square grid

While the model primarily emphasises the reaction of the local population towards the immigrant, the immigrant’s own mindset and intentions are clearly key factors in determining their level of acceptance: the extent to which they, for example, learn the host country language, use local facilities rather than those exclusively for expatriates, integrate into local social activities, take an interest in local affairs, politics, issues etc.

An understanding of such factors and the relational patterns described by Pollock and Van Reken can help international teachers be better prepared to deal with the stress caused by transition.

Pollock and van Reken’s work on Third Culture Kids has done much to de-mystify and personalise transition stress, and indeed has been influential in further developing the ‘Third Culture’ it describes. They identify five stages in the transition process, illustrated in Figure 5, although each is so complex that it can easily be subdivided into further stages.

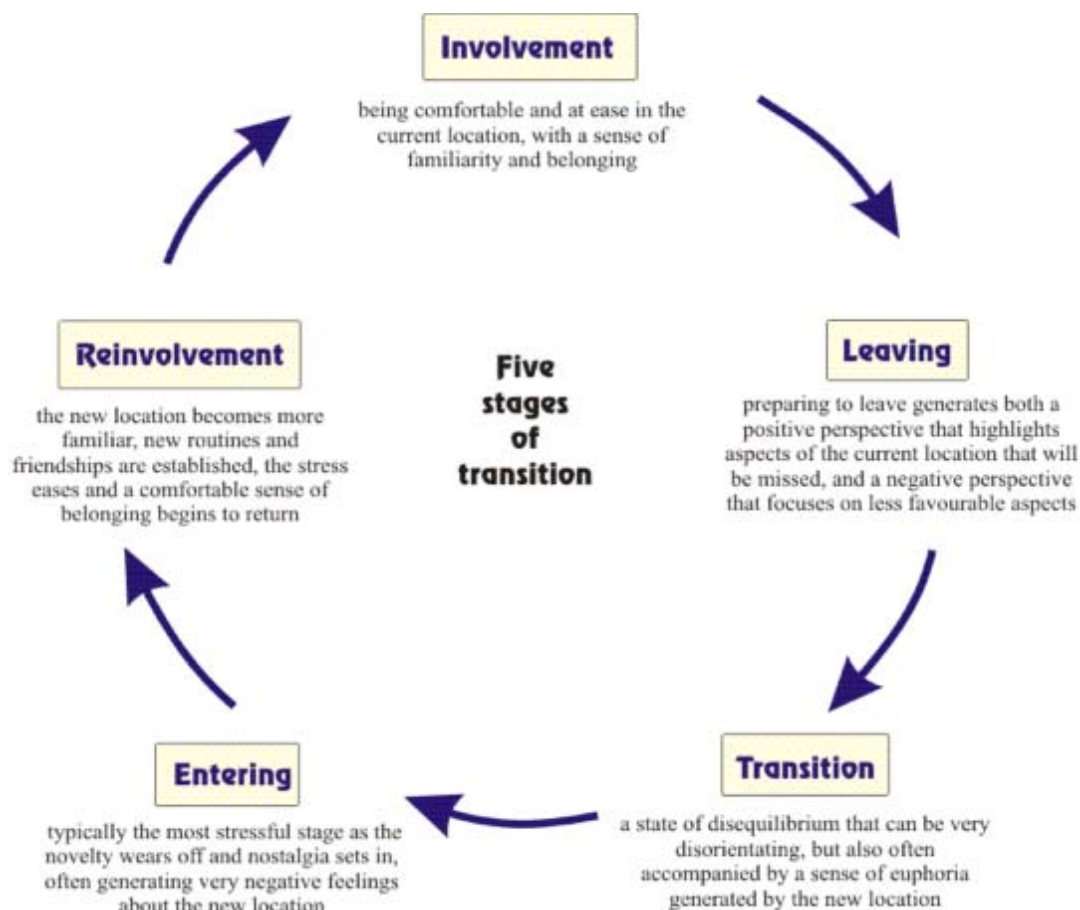


Fig. 5 Stages of transition (based on Pollock and Van Reken 2001)

Pollock and van Reken generally take a descriptive approach and their extensive use of personal commentary is effective. I have used this text extensively in my work with teachers and parents, and on several occasions had participants in tears from the relief of finding that someone understands their situation – this reaction is documented throughout the book’s anecdotes - even the name, Third Culture Kids, seems to give a much-needed sense of identity and belonging to people whose lives have been peripheral to any community. Although the accounts reflect both the positive and negative effects of a global-mobile lifestyle, on balance there is a stronger impression of the negative side, with an emphasis on how TCKs have ‘missed out’ and become a sort of ‘lost tribe’ destined to wander the world forever. This is somewhat in contrast to other literature mentioned, which, while acknowledging the difficulties many TCKs have, generally portrays the overall experience as positive.

Walker addresses this ‘disorientation’ in his examination of ‘Home sweet home’ (1998), and his use of fictional literature to explore the concepts of home and homelessness highlights a valuable teaching tool. Using literature to help children in transition is also the key factor in the work of Rader and Harris Sittig (2003), and international teachers would be well advised to incorporate it into their teaching repertoires: the value of experiencing stressful emotions vicariously is well documented.

The section would not be complete without specific consideration of those who might be considered the ‘perpetrators’ of transition stress: the parents. It might be reasonable to expect that as the decision-makers in charge of their own destinies, parents would be immune to transition stress. After all, if it’s likely to be so stressful, why choose to do it? However, in my own 20 years of experience in international education I have found that parents are often the main sufferers, particularly so-called ‘trailing spouses’ who cannot work in the new location.

It is well documented that even positive transitions are stressful and Carter (2004) identified 13 different types of stress involved with a typical family move to a new country, which, using Holmes and Rahe’s Social readjustment scale (1967), gave that family a cumulative rating of 311 on a scale of 100! While schools are obviously not directly responsible for the successful transition of parents, successful transition for students is inevitably very closely linked, and schools are often on the receiving end of parental stress. It seems surprising then, that while there is some relocation literature available from and for the business world (for example, the helpful but the emotively-titled Culture Shock! series), the issue receives little attention within international schools, and would seem to be another area worthy of research, with the aim of generating better understanding and greater empathy as well as providing practical guidelines for teachers.

By contrast, Useem noted in the 1960s (when the US published its first ever census of Americans overseas) that ‘While there was a great deal of research and many publications on the adults and the organizations sponsoring them, there was very little except anecdotal material on the minor dependents and the schools servicing them.’ Encouragingly, Langford’s extensive bibliography (1999) includes several examples of TCKs publishing their own experiences (for example, Gordon and Jones, Pascoe, Duin, Mansfield), and as global mobility increases it is to be hoped that such sharing of anecdotes and practical strategies will also increase, and the burden of transition stress decrease.

Issue (vi) Internationalising curriculum

The sixth issue to consider - internationalising curriculum - is, in a sense, a product of the preceding issues, as the need for curriculum adaptation directly arises from the cultural, linguistic and other aspects of diversity described in previous sections. The issue in fact falls into two distinct parts: internationalising WHAT is taught and internationalising HOW it is taught. The first part, internationalising what is taught, is an area represented relatively well in the literature, although the focus is mainly on developmental histories and ideological aims, as well as the detailed scope and sequence of particular programmes and frameworks produced by the various curriculum bodies. There was less evidence of objective critical analysis of existing programmes or attempts to identify at a practical classroom level how the ideology can be implemented.

Internationalising WHAT is taught

Thompson (1998) identifies four main types of curriculum used by international schools:

- Exportation – use of existing national curricula and examinations
- Adaptation – national curricula modified to take account of the international context

- Integration – synthesis of the best research and practice from a range of systems
- Creation – the process of developing new curricula from first principles

Similarly, for teachers, internationalising curriculum may involve becoming familiar with existing international curricula; creating new internationally-orientated subject areas; and/or internationalising existing subject areas and units of work, each of which is considered in the following sections.

Existing international curricula

In the field of historical development of international curriculum, two international educators in particular stand out. Sylvester and Hill have contributed widely in this field and both provide ample evidence that international schools have existed since the 1860s (Sylvester 2002; Brickman 1950 quoted in Sylvester 2007; Hill 2001, 2007). It seems however that the first serious discussion of an international curriculum came only in the 1920s, when the International Office of New Schools in Geneva proposed a ‘*maturité internationale*’ (Hill 2001), and it was not until after the Second World War, that the need for a truly international curriculum became more widely accepted, as many more international schools opened and a series of cooperative organisations was established, for example, the Conference of Principals of International Schools in 1949; the International Schools Association in 1951; International School Services in 1955 (Hill 2007).

Hill (2001) refers to a summer course for international teachers held at the International School of Geneva in 1950 that laid down a basic declaration that a programme of international education ‘should give the child an understanding of his past as a common heritage to which all men irrespective of nation, race, or creed have contributed and which all men should share; it should give him an understanding of his present world as a world in which peoples are interdependent and in which cooperation is a necessity. In such an education emphasis should be laid in a basic attitude of respect for all human beings as persons, understanding those things which unite us and an appreciation of the positive values of those things which may seem to divide us, with the objective of thinking free from fear or prejudice.’ This ideological definition inspired the International Schools Association to launch the International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme, first offered to schools in 1962, a move which is widely accepted as the beginning of formalised international curriculum. The subsequent developments of the International Schools’ Association Curriculum for the middle years from 1980-87 (adopted as the IB MYP since 1994) and the International Schools’ Curriculum Project for the primary years from 1990-96 (adopted as the IB PYP since 1997) were in turn inspired by the success of the IB Diploma Programme.

Through its three programmes, now used in more than 2,400 schools in 129 countries, ‘the International Baccalaureate aims to develop inquiring, knowledgeable and caring young people who help to create a better and more peaceful world through intercultural understanding and respect. To this end the organization works with schools, governments and international organizations to develop challenging programmes of international education and rigorous assessment. These programmes encourage students across the world to become active, compassionate and lifelong learners who understand that other people, with their differences, can also be right’ (International Baccalaureate Organization 2008b). In each of the three programmes, specific elements highlight international perspectives across subject areas. For the oldest students, the Diploma programme includes a strong focus on theory of knowledge that emphasises different

ways of knowing, explores various cultural traditions and encourages the development of critical thinking skills that reject simplistic, narrow or stereotyped opinions. Alongside this, the Creativity, Action, Service (CAS) component aims to develop self-awareness, concern for others, and the ability to work cooperatively with other people (International Baccalaureate Organization 2008a). For Middle Years students, the programme includes five Areas of Interaction (Approaches to Learning, Community and Service, Human Ingenuity, Environments, and Health and Social Education) that help students understand themselves, others and the world around them (International Baccalaureate Organization 2002). For the younger students, the Primary Years Programme is based on six global themes: Who we are, Where we are in place and time, How we express ourselves, How the world works, How we organise ourselves and Sharing the planet (International Baccalaureate Organization 2007). In addition, all three programmes have a strong multilingual component and are united by an explicit commitment to international-mindedness illustrated by the Learner Profile (International Baccalaureate Organization 2007).

While the IBO is widely acknowledged as a world leader in international curriculum, several other programmes have continued to emerge. Models such as the World Core Curriculum designed by Robert Mueller (1979), former assistant Secretary General to the United Nations, share similar international ideals and have achieved some measure of localised success, in this case, mainly in the United States. With a central core of peace education, it incorporates curricular strands that focus on Our Planetary Home and Place in the Universe, Our Place in Time, The Family of Humanity, and The Miracle of Individual Life.

The European Schools offer a model of internationalised curriculum based on multicultural, multilingual integration, combining as they do, time in national sections working in the mother-tongue (mononational groups) and time in the nominated working language for other subjects (multinational groups). Additionally they integrate explicit principles of internationalism, including a multicultural philosophy based on an ideal of combining national and European cultures. 'Educated side by side, untroubled from infancy by divisive prejudices, acquainted with all that is great and good in the different cultures, it will be borne in upon them as they mature that they belong together. Without ceasing to look to their own lands with love and pride, they will become in mind, 'Europeans', schooled and ready to complete and consolidate the work of their fathers before them, to bring into being a united and thriving Europe' (Olsen 2000).

The International Primary Curriculum (2001) was initially developed by Fieldwork Education for Shell Oil schools, a group that was trying to adapt its existing Dutch/British model to better meet the needs of its increasingly international workforce. Launched in 2001, it aims to integrate international perspectives by: developing knowledge and understanding beyond that related to (the student's) own nationality and an understanding of the independence and interdependence of peoples, countries and cultures; enabling students to adapt to other education systems and to develop both a national and an international perspective; and including a degree of focus on both the host country and the home country.

The curricula just described clearly fall into Thompson's third and fourth categories, being created specifically to serve a particular group of schools and to promote a particular type of education. Other widely-used curricula, such as the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE) and Advanced Placement

International Diploma (APID) fall into his first and second categories, having been exported, and to some degree, adapted to suit international needs. The IGCSE claims to be not only 'the world's most popular international qualification' but also 'specifically tailored to international needs' and 'to promote international understanding' (Cambridge International Examinations 2008), while the APID is described as 'a globally recognized certificate for students with an international outlook' and emphasises its recognition by universities in more than 60 countries (College Board 2008). Neither of these latter examples, however, integrates international perspectives in the manner common to the former group of examples, and it is my strong contention that to be considered truly international, a curriculum must do so.

An ideological focus is widespread throughout the literature on international curriculum, giving the clear impression of an education sector that is much more 'ideology-driven' than 'market-driven' (Matthews 1988), although there are a couple of points worth noting here: firstly, many claims to 'internationalise', especially from universities, appear to be little more than worldwide marketing drives intending to bring in international students; and secondly, Bartlett (1998) argues that 'while international education, and the schools providing it, might have the superficial appearance of a 'movement', this is far from the reality. With the exception of isolated clusters such as the United World Colleges, international schools share no recognized philosophical foundation. There are no deeply held, publicly declared beliefs and values to bind them, to bond them into a coherent global system.'

While it is true that there are few explicit formalised global bonds and equally true that there is no definitive terminology agreed, evidence from the extensive literature suggests that, nonetheless, there is clear implicit agreement on the fundamental aims of international education and international curriculum. Across more than a century, individuals (amongst others Dewey 1902, Tagore 1922, McKenzie 1998, Sampatkumar 2007) and organisations (Conference of Internationally-Minded Schools 1951, International Schools Curriculum Project 1995, United Nations Education and Scientific Cooperation Organization 1996, International Baccalaureate Organization 2007) have used, and continue to use, different words to describe the same set of 'universal values' (Merryfield 1995, Walker 2000, Gellar 2002), summarised perfectly by Gardner (2000): '(We) crave human beings who understand the world, who gain sustenance from such understanding, and who want – ardently, perennially – to alter it for the better...Without this...we are doomed to an education that is dated, partial, naïve, and inadequate.' In addition to such compelling ideological argument, there are also practical considerations, for example, 'cooperative curriculum development can avoid unnecessary and expensive duplication of effort' (Snowball 1997a).

Internationally-orientated subject areas

We must be careful, however, to avoid interpreting the process of internationalising curriculum simply as adding more world studies, world history or world literature (Gellar 2002, Dunn 2002) subjects which Lewis (2006) illustrates very clearly are taken up by only a small minority of students. For example, he quotes figures for IB Higher Level History showing that almost 98% of students opt for US or European history, while less than 3% opt for the history of Asia/Oceania/Middle East or Africa. Even within those students who take a World History course, there is evidence that they consistently choose questions with a less international orientation. For students in a so-called international curriculum, these figures are both shocking and disturbing. In common with many others, Lewis focuses on secondary schooling as the obvious time

for integrating international perspectives, and, indeed, many of the global issues to be tackled undoubtedly need the more sophisticated levels of understanding and reasoning of older students. Yet it is also evident that 'such a curriculum must begin in the primary school. Skills, habits of mind, attitudes, a common knowledge base...are not developed in the final two years, or even the final seven years of a child's life in school' (Bartlett 1998).

Despite increasing success in national as well as international schools, the international curricula described above have had relatively little impact on the wider educational community, and literature calling for, and defining, the internationalisation of curriculum is continually being generated. In 1995, Merryfield identified three fundamental ways in which an international curriculum should differ from a traditional approach, by focusing on: cultural universals – those things humans have in common, as well as cultural differences, thereby developing a sense of empathy not just tolerance; the international and ongoing nature of the technological, ecological, economic, social and political issues being addressed, rather than on specific places and times; and the interconnectedness and interdependence of peoples and places. A complementary 1996 UNESCO declaration identified the attitudes and skills an international curriculum would develop in its students as:

- a sense of universal values for a culture of peace
- the ability to value freedom and the responsibility that goes with it
- intercultural understanding which encourages the convergence of ideas and solutions to strengthen peace
- skills of non-violent conflict resolution
- skills for making informed choices
- respect for cultural heritage and protection of the environment
- feelings of solidarity and equity at national and international levels

More recently, Zsebik (2003) has suggested that 'An 'international education' would therefore be where an educational environment had a perspective built into its curricular programme that resulted in an awareness and understanding of the world and its diversity regardless of the geographical location in which these studies were occurring', what Dunn (2002) calls 'a curriculum for our border-crossing, migration-prone, multiple-identity-taking planet.' The American Forum for Global Education (Collins et al, 1996) highlights three possible approaches to internationalising the curriculum:

- 'Global Challenges – Global issues will not resolve themselves without deliberate action on the part of citizens who understand the complexities of these issues. Students should leave school informed about one or more current global challenges, such as conflict and its control; economic systems; global belief systems; human rights and social justice; planet management – resources, energy and environment; political systems; population; race and ethnicity; human commonality and diversity; the technocratic revolution; and sustainable development.
- Culture and World Areas - Each person has roots in one or more culture/s. Cross-cultural learning is crucial for living in a multicultural society and for understanding that other people may view the same events in profoundly different ways. Students who study diverse cultures objectively can gain insights into their own and other cultures by examining topics such as the major geographic and cultural areas of the world; the commonalities and differences among cultures; how geography and history affect culture; and how cultures change.

- Global Connections - For better or for worse, this web of interconnections suffuses economic activities, religious groups, and social and community organisations. Students should develop such skills as recognising, analyzing, and evaluating the interconnections among local, regional and global issues and between their personal lives and global events.'

The widespread drive to internationalise curriculum can be seen in places as far apart as China, India, Australia, the United States, England and much of the Middle-East, and, indeed, it might not be overstating the situation to claim that there is a worldwide consensus on the need to internationalise. Further, although the reforms proposed differ in format, degree and terminology used, the issues identified and the principles to be implemented, are common. Yet it seems that despite these shared agreements, and, in many cases, huge injections of resources, there are still many barriers to effectively internationalising curriculum.

Dunn (2002) points to multiculturalists, who, he argues, 'have too carelessly defined an international curriculum as the study of *cultures*, and this definition has inhibited progress toward the kind of world studies we will need in the coming century'; Douglass (2002), of the Council on Islamic Education, blames '...reviewers in teacher training, textbook review and standards development (who) have exposed us to several faulty models...provid(ing) a thumbnail sketch of each world faith that creates more stereotypes than useful understandings'; while Smith (2002) believes that the most serious problem is inadequate teacher preparation, claiming that 'Many states license teachers in social studies or history without requiring coursework in geography or world history.' The inadequacy of teacher preparation was recognised by many of the global education advocates of the 1980s and 1990s, most notably, Pike and Selby (1988) and Steiner (1993), who attempted to compensate by producing comprehensive practical texts to help teachers integrate world studies or dimensions of globality into their teaching. Twenty years later, this thesis highlights the lack of substantial reforms and represents the continuing call for teacher education to include the global perspectives essential for 21st century students.

Under such circumstances, it might be argued that any internationalising is better than none, yet care must be taken to avoid adopting a superficial topic approach, a trap that, unfortunately, the UK government paper, *Developing the global dimension in the school curriculum* (Department for Education and Science 2005), falls into. Although the paper is to be welcomed for its very practical focus, many of the suggested activities are superficial, for example, integrating music into the study of sustainable development by considering 'the sustainability of the instruments used'. Compare this with Walker's 'new global challenges' (2007): 'The challenge of the new century is not to bring people of different cultures together, but to address some of the issues that arise when this happens on a daily, hourly, minute-by-minute basis, thanks to the impact of globalization.'

Internationalising existing subject areas and units of work

Figure 6 illustrates how some of these issues might be infused in the different subject areas.

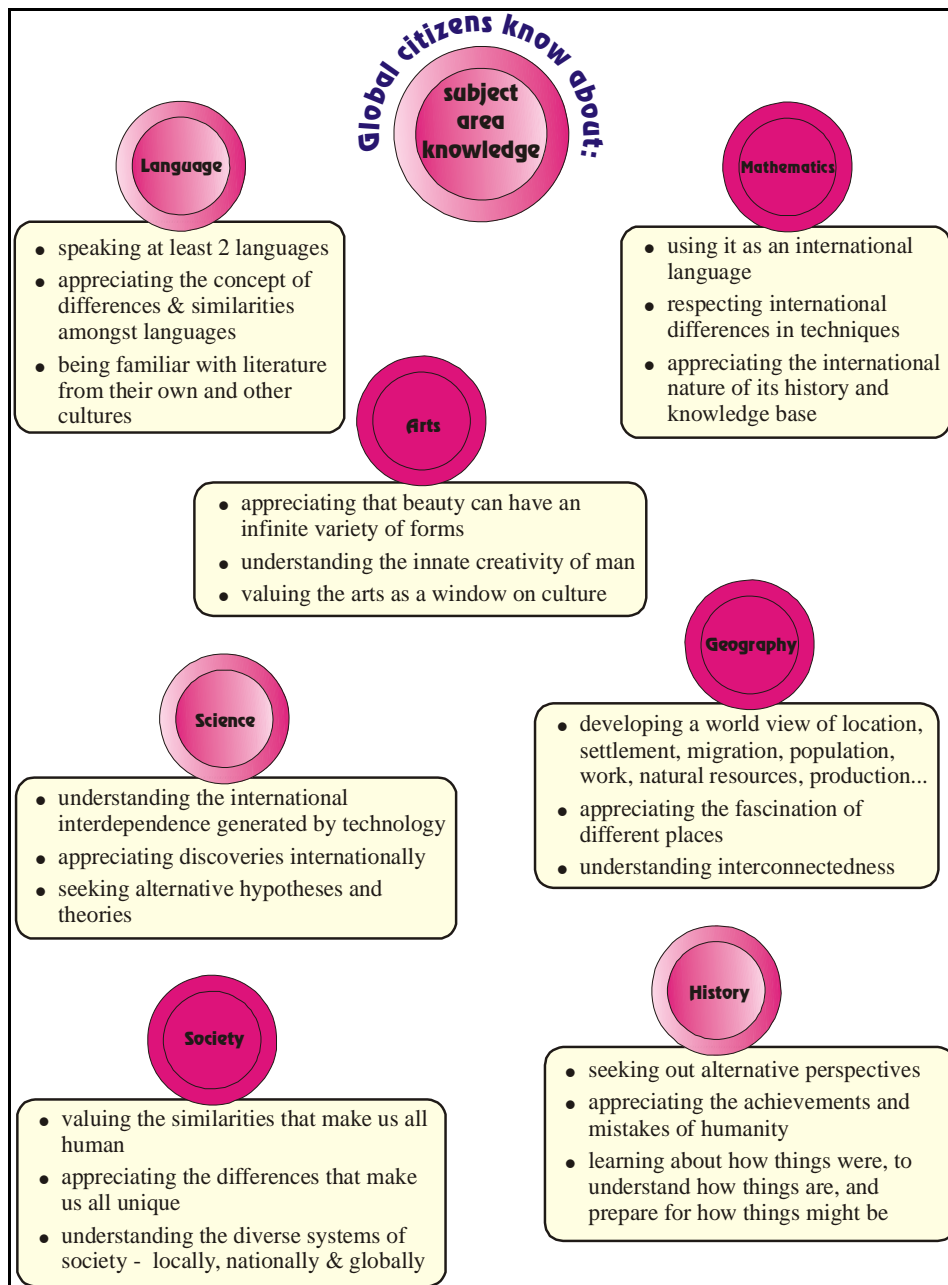


Fig. 6 Global citizens know about (Snowball 2005)

Similarly, Pike and Selby (1988) define four dimensions of globality that teachers must integrate into their teaching: *spatial, temporal, issues and cultural*.

Developing students' awareness of *spatial* globality, or interdependence, becomes essential as 'almost all of us are caught up in a network of links, interactions and relationships that encircle the planet like a giant and intricate spider's web so that the wider world is a pervasive and ubiquitous element in the routines of everyday life.' While this is not a new phenomenon, 'the *degree of frequency* of events involving global interdependencies has risen – and continues to rise – dramatically, whilst there has been a corresponding falling away in the number of events of consequence for only one continent...The *depth and scope* of global interdependence (i.e. the range and number of people and the range and number of human activities and concerns affected by interactions of a global nature) has also mushroomed dramatically in the

contemporary world...there are now almost no people and very few activities not affected in some part at least by the interdependent nature of the world...They affect the purity of the air we breathe and the water we drink, the levels of employment and inflation, the price of tea, the level of taxation, fuel costs, the survival prospects of wildlife, the availability and subject matter of the books and magazines we read, the changing respective roles of women and men in society, our relative peacefulness or unpeacefulness of mind and our image of the future.' Teachers must aim to raise student awareness of this interdependence, using activities such as '*World in the Classroom*', '*School, Pantry or Wardrobe*' to demonstrate how international most of our purchases are. Newspapers, local businesses and foreign visitors are all valuable sources of information about how the school's specific location is linked to the wider world. Making links with schools in other countries allows students to participate in joint projects and share firsthand perspectives about places, people and issues.

The second dimension of *temporal* globality is concerned with the dynamic relationship between past, present and future. 'What we take to be the present necessarily refers back and forward in time. Our reality grows out of past history, but is powerfully shaped too by what we believe about the future. Similarly, our decisions, the technologies we collectively deploy, the ideologies and ends we pursue all frame and condition the world of our descendants.' (Slaughter, cited in Pike and Selby 1988) As with spatial globality, temporal globality, or change, is not a new phenomenon, but the exponential degree and pace of contemporary change is unprecedented and requires students to develop skills, insights and a nimbleness of mind beyond previous expectations. Indeed it is people's inability to cope with such change that led Toffler to coin the term 'future shock' (1970, cited in Pike and Selby, 1988) and, more recently, that informed Rischard's title *High Noon* (2002): describing the rapidly widening gap between the exponential pace of economic, technological and population change, and the reactions of individuals and institutions. Rischard points out two approaches to narrowing the gap: slowing down the pace of economic, technological and population change, or speeding up human reaction rates. He dismisses the former as both impossible, and, because of the potential benefits such change brings, undesirable. We are therefore left with the latter option – to increase students' understanding of change, and their capacity to deal with it, and to equip them with knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the challenges they will face. Indeed, what else is education for?

The third dimension focuses on global *issues* that combine the spatial and temporal dimensions, and significantly and negatively affect the lives of people across space and time. Such issues, enormous in size, complexity, severity and variety, require complex, multilayered collaborative solutions, clearly beyond the scope of average students or teachers. We do not know for sure how things will develop and we cannot give students solutions. Yet by developing students' ability and willingness to think about and discuss these issues, consider different points of view, however controversial, and work collaboratively, we are developing their capacity to solve them.

The fourth dimension, described as a global *cultural* crisis, focuses on the need to switch paradigms, from hierarchical to network structures and from a mechanistic, analytical world view more traditionally associated with Western philosophies, to a systemic, holistic world view more traditionally associated with Eastern philosophies. These alternate paradigms also equate to Hofstede's dimensions of cultural difference described earlier in this chapter: power – distance; individualism – collectivism; masculinity – femininity; uncertainty avoidance; and long-term – short-term orientation. Arguing for an end to 'the dominance of the cerebral over such other human qualities as

the emotional, the intuitive and the spiritual’ and urging reintegration of mind and body, fact and opinion, reason and intuition, intellect and emotion, Pike and Selby (p.28) conclude that ‘ It follows that we cannot hope to achieve personal transformation at a purely intellectual level. If the heart is not engaged and if patterns of behaviour remain unchanged there is no real transformation.’ It follows then that what we must try to develop are students who are not only internationally-minded but also ‘internationally-hearted’. Yet, as noted, despite a large body of literature that supports the internationalising of WHAT is taught, the practicalities of internationalising HOW it is taught seem to have been somewhat neglected.

Internationalising HOW it is taught

The field of global education yields some more pragmatically-inclined literature, for example, *Global Citizenship: The Handbook for Primary Teaching* (Young with Commins, 2002) and *Global Teacher: Global Learner* (Pike and Selby 1988). In addition to the main focus on practical ideas for teaching, at a whole school and individual classroom level, both deal with potential concerns from teachers and parents; give ideas for addressing contentious issues with students; and encourage local and global connections. They also emphasise the importance of seeking multiple perspectives via diverse resources – advice that, in my own experience, offers one of the simplest and most effective ways for teachers themselves to internationalise any curriculum (although they still faces challenges such as budget limitations, access restrictions, quality control and the need for sensitivity in dealing with potentially contentious issues).

Whatever ages or subjects taught, international teachers must encourage students to seek and consider multiple perspectives, having them question, compare and contrast, analyse, consider different hypotheses, and in doing so, develop their own perspective, thereby helping them to ‘see the bigger picture – considering not only cultural differences but the historical, social, economic and political roots of those differences; not only world events, but the causes of those events’ (Hill 2000). Hill illustrates his argument with an example: ‘The class completes the study with a comparison of the attitudes towards the elderly in different countries...We might be inclined to say ‘well done’ to this teacher; isn’t this part of what international education is about? No, it isn’t complete. The groundwork has been done, but the essential element is missing: reflection on and discussion about why the different points of view exist – they will have historical, social, economic, political or cultural roots. This is what leads to understanding and respecting another point of view without necessarily accepting it – knowing where it came from, its antecedents. It is also important to know why cultures hold to their values. The students need to be guided to scratch below the surface of the comparisons, for there lies the real answer to what international education is all about. If the teacher takes this extra, vital step, then he or she will have clinched it.’

The issue of internationalising curriculum can therefore be summarised thus: ‘What is taught and how it is taught must be relevant to all students, moving beyond national knowledge and boundaries to take into account both local and global issues and perspectives, cultural and linguistic diversity, and the concept of global citizenship. In an internationally-orientated curriculum such internationalising must be infused across all subjects areas, within all resources used, and most importantly, in the mindsets of teachers’ (Snowball 2007).

Issue (vii) The reflective international teacher

It seems appropriate that the seventh and final issue focuses squarely on the professional growth of international teachers - 'reflective practitioners who continually evaluates the effects of his/her choices and actions on others and who actively seek out opportunities to grow professionally' (Snowball 2007). Teacher reflection is widely represented in the literature as a key component of professional growth and has been the subject of various models that describe developing levels of skill, for example, that attributed to Burch (1971).

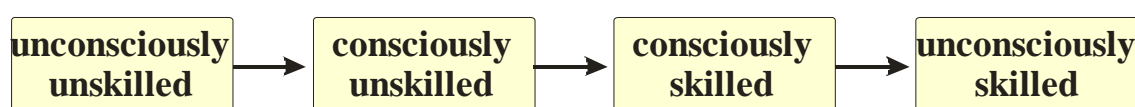


Fig. 7 Four stages for learning any new skill (Burch 1971)

The 'unconsciously unskilled' level, where teachers are unaware of their lack of skill, often applies in unknown situations, for example, before a teacher goes into an international context for the first time. Generally, teachers move quickly into the next 'consciously unskilled' level, where, although they have not yet developed the skills needed, they are aware of this. (There are occasionally of course individuals who fail to develop conscious awareness of the skills needed, and who remain at the unconsciously unskilled level.) At the third level they are 'consciously skilled', having developed the skills but being able to apply them only while consciously concentrating on them. At the fourth level, 'unconsciously skilled' teachers apply their skills automatically, or without conscious effort. Any change in teaching situation – a change of grade level or subject area, a new class or even a new student – tends to cause a temporary change in skill level, and in transition to a new school, even experienced teachers may revert to either the consciously skilled or the consciously unskilled level, while they adjust to new ways of doing things, and regain their efficacy.

While such models and level descriptors are highly relevant to teacher development generally, and to both the personal and professional aspects of transition, what is of most interest in this section is a fifth level of 'reflective consciousness' proposed more recently by Baume (2004). He argues that teachers who are applying their skills without conscious effort (the unconsciously skilled) are static, and that ongoing professional development requires a further level of metacognition, which by definition is conscious.

This fifth level of conscious reflection clearly underlies the work of Perkins, whose concern is to inspire the development of 'Smart Schools' (1992), and who uses teacher reflection as an essential element of his categorisation: 'Group One teachers resist scrutiny and counsel from others and show little tendency to reflect on their own practice...Group Two teachers...rethink their own practice according to their classroom experiences. But they do not welcome the eyes, minds and mouths of outsiders, even outsiders who teach across the hall. Group Three teachers not only pursue self-examination but throw the door open to collegial interaction around their teaching.'

Subsequent chapters will emphasise the importance of international teachers belonging to Perkins' third group, illustrated well by the following description: 'Beginning with the teacher's initial decision to work in an international school...reflection is a key element: choosing to teach in a different country or school system often involves a new process for finding the job and requires serious reflection on adaptability and

compatibility. In addition, using a different curriculum and resources can make experienced teachers feel like novices again and requires resourceful reflection on previous practice. Further, working with colleagues and students from different backgrounds can bring beliefs and values into question and requires deep reflection on personal traits and professional skills' (Snowball 2007). As Hayden (2006) concludes, 'there is more to embarking upon teaching in an international school than simply moving to a new school in a new location' and reflective teachers are more likely to be aware in advance of some of the differences and challenges Hayden identifies.

Indeed, if we want our schools to nurture reflective students, as so many school mission statements and student profiles claim, then reflective teachers are a pre-requisite. 'When the conditions in which teachers work signal, promote and facilitate their intellectual growth, they will gradually align their classrooms and instruction to promote students' intellectual growth' (Costa, cited in Perkins 1992).

Kyriacou (1998) suggests a series of questions that can usefully guide teachers' reflection:

- Do I regularly consider my current practice with a view to identifying aspects that can be usefully developed?
- Do I make adequate use of evaluating my lessons in informing my future planning and practice?
- Do I make use of systematic methods of collecting data about my current practice that may be helpful?
- Do I try to keep well-informed about developments in teaching, learning and assessment in schools that have implications for my teaching?
- Do I make use of a variety of different ways of developing a particular teaching skill (eg. attending workshops, using training manuals, collaborating with colleagues)?
- Do I make the best use of my involvement in a scheme of teacher appraisal to consider my development needs?
- How well do I help colleagues to appraise and develop their classroom practice?
- Do I regularly review how I can organise my time and effort to better effect?
- Do I use a range of useful strategies and techniques to deal with sources of stress effectively?
- Do I help create a supportive climate in my school to help colleagues discuss and overcome problems?

While Kyriacou focuses on the individual element of reflection, Barth (cited in Perkins 1992) identifies collegiality as a factor in thoughtful professionalism: 'Collegiality means something different from congeniality. It's not just good manners and telling jokes in the teachers' room. Collegiality means working together in a mutually supportive and thoughtful way at the business of education...In a collegial atmosphere, teachers talk about practice, observe each other, work on curriculum together, and teach each other. The school that serves as a home for teachers' minds is much more likely to become one for students' minds as well.'

The demands on teachers are great, however, and Hargreaves and Lo (2000) point out the paradox of societal expectations of teachers as catalysts of societal change while at the same time they are often the casualties of fierce societal criticism. 'Since the start of mass schooling and with its spread across the world, public education has been repeatedly burdened with the expectation that it can save society. Schools and their

teachers have been expected to save children from poverty and destitution; to rebuild nationhood in the aftermath of war; to develop universal literacy as a platform for economic survival; to create skilled workers even when there is little demand for them; to develop tolerance amongst children in nations where adults are divided by religious and ethnic conflicts; to cultivate democratic sentiments in societies that bear the scars of totalitarianism; to keep developed nations economically competitive and help developing ones to become so; and, as the United States' *Goals for 2000 for education* proclaimed, the way educators prepare the generations of the future should eliminate drug dependency, end violence in schools and seemingly make restitution for all the sins of the present generation.' We expect teachers to synthesise all these hopes to produce 'internationally-minded students', a task which has neither been clearly defined nor, I contend, included in any substantial or systematic way in teacher education.

Hargreaves, Goodson, Caldwell and others (cited in Hargreaves and Lo 2000), representing the network called Professional Actions and Cultures of Teaching (PACT), argue for a new professionalism that addresses the paradoxes and significant changes in teachers' roles, and encourages teachers to be more confident in creating the character of their profession, rather than accepting that bestowed upon them by society. Yet even this presents a further paradox. Such changes result from thoughtful reflection and collaborative discussion, yet 'As teachers struggle to cope with the many demands of reform and to fulfil the numerous tasks that are heaped upon them, there is little time for reflection and even less space for a new professionalism to emerge.' Teachers must take charge of their time and escape from the 'tyranny of the urgent', ensuring that the urgent tasks with which they are bombarded on a daily basis are balanced with the important tasks which tend to be pushed aside.

Previous examinations of teacher effectiveness and attempts to identify knowledge, skills and characteristics common to successful teachers have produced differing conclusions. Darling-Hammond (2000) focused on which school variables influence student achievement, following a 50-state survey on Teacher Quality and Student Achievement. Although her research is conducted only in the USA, it seems valid to apply her findings more broadly, certainly to US teachers teaching outside the USA, and, tentatively, to teachers of other nationalities also. In common with others researching teacher effectiveness, including Shulman (1986) and Hamachek (1990), Darling-Hammond's research is based on the fundamental contention that 'schools can make a difference (*in student learning*) and a substantial proportion of that difference is attributable to teachers...The findings of both the qualitative and quantitative analyses suggest that policy investments in the quality of teachers may be related to improvements in student performance.' Although, in contrast to Shulman and Hamachek, she does not propose a definitive list of traits, her work goes further in that it considers the statistical significance of specific variables in teacher quality. While variables such as 'general academic ability and intelligence' and 'subject-matter knowledge' show only small and statistically insignificant relationships to improved student performance, variables such as 'knowledge of teaching and learning' and 'certification status' show much more statistically significant correlation. She also highlights the 'recurring positive relationship between student learning and teacher flexibility, creativity or adaptability', a finding supported by the research of Hamachek (1969) and Doyle (1985), and also consistent with my own survey findings.

However, as Cohen, Manion and Morrison (1996) caution, as 'education is always affected by the particular setting in which it takes place, the traits of a successful teacher will differ depending on the context'. It might be expected therefore that international

schools will look for additional traits in their teachers, specific to their international context, and, further, that ideology-driven schools (Matthews 1988) will be looking for additional traits relating specifically to international-mindedness.

Conclusion

This literature review has revealed a range of challenges facing international teachers and presented substantial evidence of their significance. These challenges have been organised into seven key issues, and it is the contention of this thesis that each of these represents a domain of knowledge and skills that is essential for effective international teachers and that is therefore reflected in the model of training proposed in Chapter 5. It is further contended that while issues (ii) and (vii) (Student characteristics and learning and The reflective teacher) might seem more immediately applicable to education in general and issues (i), (iii), (iv) and (v) (The international context of education, Multiculturalism, Multilingualism, Transition and mobility, and Internationalising curriculum) might seem more immediately applicable to international school settings, the evidence presented of increasing global mobility emphasises that all seven issues are important for teachers in all contexts.

While the seven issues were found to be well-represented in literature and research, in contrast they were found to be inadequately represented within teacher education, and it is the contention of this thesis that their inclusion in teacher education programmes will result in more effective international teachers and, ultimately, more internationally-minded students.

In subsequent chapters these seven issues are explored further and, by synthesising the literature, survey data and personal anecdotal evidence, developed into seven domains of knowledge and skills that are the basis of a comprehensive model of preparation and certification for international teachers.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The research paradigm

Under the title, *The Development of a Model of Initial and Ongoing Training for the International Teacher*, the research was based on my contention that, while teaching in international schools demands specialised knowledge, skills and characteristics, existing teacher training does not meet this need. This belief arose from many years in international education and extensive personal experience of recruiting and working with hundreds of international teachers. It seemed that, while each international school had a unique set of characteristics, there were several common issues:

- the unique profile of each school was an issue in itself, as teachers moving from school to school struggled to adapt to new sets of policies, procedures and expectations
- international school student populations were often more diverse than teachers had previously experienced, often representing 40 or more nationalities and languages, as well as a wide range of learning styles and educational backgrounds
- international communities were often very transient with students and teachers often staying only one or two years in a school
- most international schools were using curricula exported from national systems, with only minor modifications, if any, for the international context
- international teachers had to be highly self-reliant in managing their careers and creative in finding professional development opportunities
- international schools' missions often related to developing internationally-minded students, yet teachers themselves had little understanding of what this meant or how to develop it

It also seemed that the lack of adequate preparation in relation to these issues created unnecessary challenges and frustrations both for individual teachers and for schools. The proposed outcome of the research, therefore, was to create a model of training that could be applied comprehensively and systematically to help teachers develop the specialised knowledge and skills required. It is important to note that the use of the word 'training' in the title and throughout the thesis has been questioned by UK-based colleagues, as the word is considered outdated and inappropriate, with 'teacher education' being used in preference. The term training, however, is still widely used in most other regions of the world seemingly without the negative connotations that have become attached to it in the UK.

With the intention to utilise three main sources of research data – literature, survey data and personal experience – my approach was clearly constructivist as opposed to positivist. While the surveys provide quantitative data, they rely on the highly subjective perceptions and opinions of teachers, parents and students. Similarly, my own close involvement with the international education community, and in some cases, familiarity with the survey respondents, meant I was inextricably an interactive part of what was being researched. In outlining the two contrasting traditions of educational research – namely, the objective, unambiguous, quantitative positivist model and the subjective, ambiguous, qualitative constructivist model – Pring (2000 p32) emphasises that 'there is world of difference between the sort of enquiry appropriate for understanding physical reality and the sort of enquiry appropriate for understanding the mental life of individual persons.' He goes on to argue that education cannot be fully

captured by one or the other, but needs a third paradigm that combines elements of both. Yet, in this research, even those elements that could be considered unambiguous, such as what training teachers had had (Survey 3), are affected by subjectivity. Individual memory clearly differs – respondents might have remembered more occurrences of training if given more time, prompts or opportunities to confer with colleagues or consult CVs etc. Their professional relationship with me as the researcher, though not personally close, might well have influenced them to provide responses of a particular kind, for example, those they think I wish to hear or that reflect better on their professional abilities (although in the latter case it might be expected that they would overstate the training they had had, which was not borne out by the survey results). These issues of reliability and validity are looked at later in this chapter in considering the detailed research design.

In any research, ethical considerations are paramount, and arguably more so in a constructivist paradigm, where ambiguity, subjectivity and interpretation are an integral part of the approach. Anderson (1998) makes an important point that in considering the purpose and impact of the research and the potential consequence of error, research ethics now consist not only of moral aspects but also, increasingly, legal aspects, and consequently he identifies three different ethical codes to be addressed: personal, professional and legal. It seems that researchers might be advised to take these three into account in reverse order, assuring first that all legal aspects have been considered; next that issues of professional ethics are addressed; and finally, that personal ethical stances are satisfied.

The main focus of research ethics is to protect the rights and welfare of participants and even the basic terminology used can indicate the researcher's stance to this, for example, 'subjects' suggesting something being done to them, 'participants' suggesting something done in conjunction with them (Oliver, 2003). My own choice of the term 'respondents' is intended to indicate simply that they responded to the survey (surveyees was considered as an equally acceptable description). In this research there was no risk to the survey respondents before, during or after the research, and survey respondents were anonymous. Although it is theoretically possible that in one or two cases I could have used the demographic data from Survey 02 to identify specific individuals, the data is insufficient for them to be identified by anyone else.

Informed consent is deemed to be a fundamental requirement for any ethical research, defined by Anderson (1998, p19) as six basic elements:

- 'an explanation of the purpose of the research and the procedures that will be used;
- a description of any reasonably foreseeable risks and discomforts to the subjects;
- a description of any benefits that may reasonably be expected, including incentives to participate;
- a disclosure of any alternative procedures that might be advantageous to the subject;
- an offer to answer any questions concerning the procedures;
- a statement that participation is voluntary and that the subject is free to withdraw from the study at any time.'

In this research, consent was obtained in a variety of ways. Firstly, as all three surveys were conducted in schools or at conferences / recruitment fairs, consent was sought from what Oliver (2003, p39) calls the 'gatekeepers' of each organisation – the heads, directors and CEOs. In Surveys 02 and 03, the survey sheet was distributed to school respondents by the heads of school, with an accompanying letter from them. In addition, as Survey 02 was to be completed by parents and students as well as teachers, the

survey was translated into Spanish by one of the schools involved. In all three surveys, respondents were told the purpose of the survey, my name and relationship both to the international education community and to the university and the approximate amount of time the survey would take. In Survey 01, which was conducted face to face, this was done verbally, while in Surveys 02 and 03, which were conducted remotely, it was done in writing. In addition, for Surveys 02 and 03, the schools involved were told that they could contact me for results in due course if they so wished.

Anderson (1998) emphasises the importance of respondents having the right to refuse or discontinue, and therefore the potential pressure of the face to face method used in Survey 1 must be acknowledged. However, there were several polite refusals, and many instances of the 'getting more than you asked for' that Anderson also refers to, as respondents talked far beyond the 2-5 minutes I had allowed, so I feel confident that this was not an issue. In Surveys 02 and 03, the remote method of completion removed this risk, as there was no pressure to return them, other than perhaps a feeling of professional obligation, and surveys were anonymous, so there was no way of knowing who had or had not returned them.

The issue of informed consent has another aspect in this research. I have highlighted several programmes as good examples of internationalism in teacher education, and similarly, I have used selected school mission statements to illustrate the inclusion of explicit international goals for students. While all the information used is freely available on public domain websites and therefore not deemed to require specific consent, my membership of the international education community and relationship with the schools and some of the universities highlighted carries an ethical responsibility, perhaps more significant for those organisations not highlighted than for those that were. The schools selected for their explicit reference to internationalism in their mission statements were all known to me but their selection was somewhat arbitrary and is in no way intended to reflect negatively on schools not chosen. Conversely, in the case of the teacher education programmes highlighted, as detailed later in this chapter, their selection was systematic, purposeful and intended to reflect a lack of internationalism found in other programmes reviewed.

The final ethical consideration is that of conflict of interest, in the surveys and in the research as a whole. With regard to the surveys this is felt to be minimal, as, although I knew many of the survey respondents, the anonymity protects them. With regard to the overall research however, a very clear self-interest in promoting internationalism in teacher education must be declared. As a school head, when I began the research, I hoped to gain by recruiting, inducting and retaining better prepared teachers resulting in better educated students and more satisfied parents. Now, as an educational consultant, I potentially gain from the success of a model of training that compensates for the lack of preparation highlighted by the research. As detailed in the concluding chapter of the thesis, the model is not only the basis for an extensive series of post-graduate workshops, but has also been adopted as the basis for teacher certification by the European Council of International Schools, and recognised for university credit in the UK and Australia.

The overall research plan

The research design focused around three key questions:

- What influences people to teach internationally?
- What knowledge, skills and characteristics do effective international teachers need?
- How does existing training meet these needs?

and would utilise three main sources of data:

- literature
- surveys
- personal experience

The literature review would focus on key publications and previous research from the international schools sector, to determine the authenticity of the issues identified from personal experience. It would also be contrasted with literature from national systems to allow comparison of the knowledge, skills and characteristics deemed to be needed by teachers and the extent to which existing training met those needs.

Following the literature review, the research questions would be addressed through three surveys, in an attempt to validate the academic wisdom with an authentic practitioners' voice. It was felt that the surveys could also add quantitative data with some degree of objectivity to otherwise totally qualitative, narrative information. The surveys were to be conducted face to face with international educators (teachers and administrators) at conferences, recruitment fairs and in schools, as well as by post or email through my network of international school contacts. For the second survey, relating to the knowledge, skills and characteristics of effective international teachers, international school students and parents would be included. It was further intended that this second survey would also be conducted with control groups of teachers, students and parents in national school systems, to highlight the specialised nature of the knowledge, skills and characteristics needed by international teachers. The data from the three surveys would supplement findings from the literature and support or refute my contention and the results would determine the exact nature of the model developed.

As shown in Figures 8 and 9, however, the actual research structure differed from that planned, being significantly more complex and iterative.

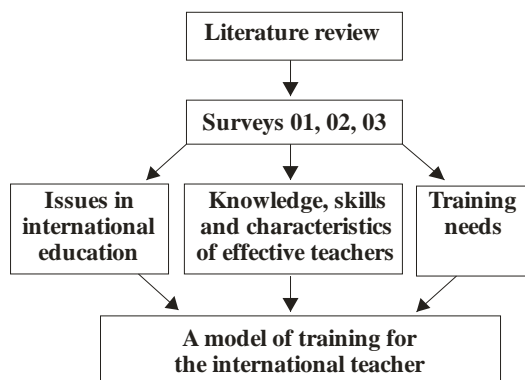


Fig. 8 Original research plan

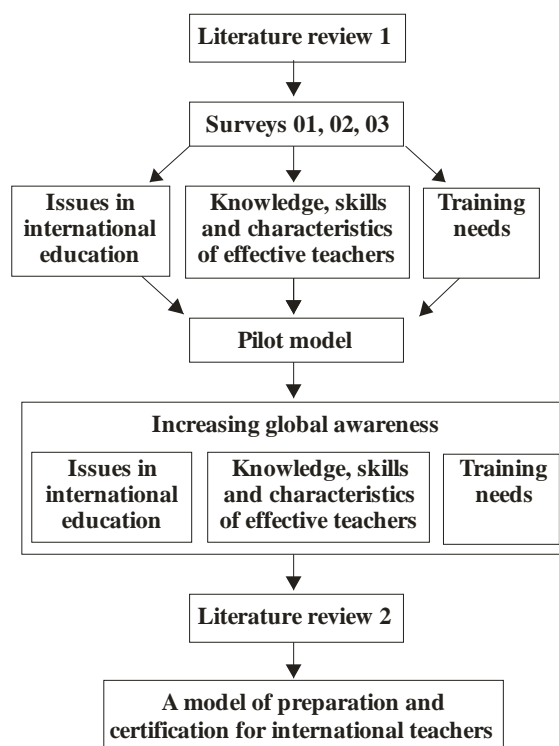


Fig. 9 Actual research structure

The literature review

The differences began with the very first stage when the initial literature review, focusing on research and publications from the international schools sector, yielded limited information. What was found was valuable, but, as a minority sector of education, it seemed to have largely been ignored by mainstream educational researchers, writers and publishers and it was apparent that it represented only one very specific perspective on international education, being largely written by the international school community about, and for, itself.

Much of the literature on international education was concerned with defining international education and international schools, a seemingly elusive goal. Wishing to avoid inconclusive and probably somewhat arbitrary definitions, my focus was on describing, rather than defining, international teachers, by reference to a further set of questions:

- What motivated them to teach internationally?
- Where did they come from?
- What knowledge, skills and characteristics did they need to be effective in international schools?
- What training did they need to help them succeed?
- To what extent was this need met by existing training?

I also drew heavily on the related field of global education, and it became apparent that this often included several other related fields such as development education, peace education, multicultural education and world studies. Throughout the literature review, the range of terminology and lack of clear definitions for different fields posed a challenge. This was emphasised by distinct historical changes in the meanings attributed to particular terms, as they came into and went out of fashion in response to changing

situations and developing understandings. While there were definite differences between the mainly national context of global education and the context of international education, the similarities in ideology were more prominent. It was apparent, however, that despite these similarities, there was little crossover in research and literature between the two fields, with each apparently disregarding the experience of the other as largely irrelevant. The UK and USA yielded the majority of the literature reviewed, in both the international and global education fields. This was to be expected given that the vast majority of international teachers originate from these two countries, although which is cause and which effect is arguable.

Given my contention that there are several issues in international education for which teachers are not well prepared, a starting point needed to be an overview of each of the individual issues. This raised a challenge of scale, in that each issue was represented by a vast amount of information, but ultimately provided a clear overall structure for the literature review. A further challenge was presented by the overall timing of the research: during the lengthy research period the world's awareness of globalisation seemed to dramatically increase and the subject of internationalising education moved higher up the agenda of governments and educational organisations to be embedded explicitly in international, national, regional and local strategies and policies. This increased awareness was accompanied by a whole new range of literature and good practice, necessitating both a second literature review and the self-discipline to place limits on a potentially infinite process.

In summary then, by drawing on literature from discrete but ideologically-related fields it was possible to identify several categories of international teacher; common issues facing them; traits of effective teachers; and an acknowledged need for teacher education with an international perspective. The issues identified were organised into seven domains of knowledge and skills that it was felt could form the framework of a model of teacher preparation. From this base, synthesised with anecdotal evidence from personal experience, three small-scale surveys using self-completion questionnaires were constructed to further investigate the research questions and add quantitative input into the primarily qualitative methodology.

The surveys

Survey 01

Survey 01 was created as a simple initial entry point into the research. Following the three survey design pre-requisites suggested by Hoinville and Jowell (cited in Cohen and Manion 1989) – namely, defining the exact purpose of the survey, identifying the population to which it is to be addressed and considering the resources available to administer the survey – it aimed to investigate the factors that influenced teachers to teach internationally.

The list of influences was initially drawn from the international education literature and my own international school experience – through getting to know colleagues, recruiting and orientating new teachers, and having some new teachers quit within the first few months or even days of school, it was clear that there were many factors involved in teachers' decisions to teach internationally. The original list was extended through an informal survey of colleagues within my own school and this more comprehensive list formed the base for the main survey, which was trialled on a small group of colleagues before being finalised. In the actual survey, respondents were presented with the list of 27 possible influences and asked to tick all that applied to

them. A further category of 'Other' was included to allow them to indicate additional influences.

The population to which the survey would be addressed was teachers who were currently teaching or had previously taught outside their home country and an annual conference of the European Council of International Schools, with approximately 3000 international educators in attendance, provided a good source of surveyees. Due to time constraints described below the eventual sample was 70 teachers, chosen by a combination of what Cohen and Manion (1989) call Convenience Sampling (also described as accidental sampling, this involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents) and Purposive Sampling (this involves handpicking individual respondents on the basis of their typicality). Standing in a central area of the conference building, I first asked teachers passing through whether they had international teaching experience - those who answered affirmatively were asked to complete the survey.

With regard to the third consideration, that of resources, Cohen and Manion warn against the potential costs and the labour-intensive nature of surveys. Having also been warned of low return rates from postal or email surveys, I had already decided that in order to ensure a high response rate, I would personally hand out the surveys and have respondents fill them in there and then (although Cohen and Manion actually claim that low return rates for postal surveys are a myth not borne out by research evidence). I had chosen a central area with seating and tables where respondents could comfortably complete the survey sheets. In trials, the survey had taken 2-5 minutes to complete so I felt that my aim of distributing 200 questionnaires over the three days of the conference was realistic. However, after the first morning I had gathered only a handful of completed surveys because each respondent was keen to engage in conversation, relating their different, often intriguing, stories about how they came to be teaching internationally. I therefore changed my approach and gave out surveys to groups having coffee or waiting for conference sessions to begin, which was much more efficient, but nowhere near as interesting.

The simplicity of the survey together with the face to face completion seemed to ensure its success. Respondents were clear what was expected and there were no spoilt surveys. The data was collated using a simple table and illustrated using a bar chart, presented in Chapter 4.

Survey 02

Survey 02 was designed as a central piece of the research into the traits of effective international teachers. Drawing from the literature on traits of effective teachers detailed in Chapter 4 (Shulman 1986; Pike and Selby 1988; Hamachek 1990; Merryfield 1995; Clough and Holden 1996; Young and Commins 2002) a list of traits was drafted. A second list was compiled from an open-ended question (What characteristics do you think are most important for teachers in an international school?) presented to parents and colleagues at my school. The two lists were then synthesised to produce the list of 15 traits used in Survey 02. From this list, respondents were asked to choose the three traits they felt were most important in an effective teacher.

This survey was completed by 440 respondents from international schools worldwide, including teachers, students, parents, administrators and teacher trainers. It was conducted over a period of two years, during visits to schools and at a Council of International Schools' Recruitment Fair. For one group of schools in Peru, the survey

was translated into Spanish. Unlike Survey 01, respondents were given a brief explanation and then completed the survey without direct contact with me, to make a larger sample feasible. The survey also included demographic information on the respondent's role, nationality, years of teaching experience, years of overseas teaching experience and current school type, presented in Figures 10 – 18. This facilitated much more detailed analysis, as the traits chosen by the respondents were tabulated in relation to the demographic information, using what Anderson (XXXX p92) describes as:

- (i) descriptive statistics, eg. How many teachers chose Trait 1?
- (ii) comparative statistics, eg. Did teachers, parents and students choose the same or different traits?
- (iii) relational statistics, eg. Did years of teaching, type of school etc. affect their choices?

This survey process was very different from that originally envisaged. The original plan was to conduct the survey with groups of teachers, students, parents and administrators both from international school and national school communities in order to show whether the traits chosen differed significantly in the two different contexts. This was to be conducted in selected case-study countries with which I had direct contacts both in the national and international systems, namely The Netherlands, Austria, Sri Lanka, Peru and Singapore. The survey was to be supplemented by a comparative overview of the training available to teachers in both systems. Two key factors necessitated changing the process, however. First, some of the contacts lapsed early in the process, and second, partly due to the first factor, it became apparent that the plan was over-ambitious. The simplified plan for Survey 02 described above was therefore implemented and the comparative overview of training was revised as described later in this chapter.

Survey 002			
Traits of an Effective Teacher			
D1 Respondents by role			
Role		#	% of total
Educational	Teacher trainer	46	10.5%
	Teacher	264	60.0%
	Admin	38	8.6%
	sub-total	348	79.1%
Non-Educational	Parent	18	4.1%
	Student	74	16.8%
	sub-total	92	20.9%
Total		440	100%

Fig. 10 Traits of an effective teacher D1

Survey 002			
Traits of an Effective Teacher			
D2 Educational respondents by nationality			
Nationality	#	% of total	(ex.Peruvians)
Peruvian	133	38.2%	
British	83	23.9%	38.6%
US	43	12.4%	20.0%
Dual nationality	21	6.0%	9.8%
Australian	12	3.4%	5.6%
Canadian	11	3.2%	5.1%
German	5	1.4%	2.3%
New Zealand	5	1.4%	2.3%
Spanish	4	1.1%	1.9%
Austrian	3	0.9%	1.4%
Belgian	3	0.9%	1.4%
French	3	0.9%	1.4%
Brazilian	2	0.6%	0.9%
Dutch	2	0.6%	0.9%
Japanese	2	0.6%	0.9%
Norwegian	2	0.6%	0.9%
Swiss	2	0.6%	0.9%
Czech	1	0.3%	0.5%
Danish	1	0.3%	0.5%
Finnish	1	0.3%	0.5%
Hungarian	1	0.3%	0.5%
Indian	1	0.3%	0.5%
Irish	1	0.3%	0.5%
Italian	1	0.3%	0.5%
Jordanian	1	0.3%	0.5%
Swedish	1	0.3%	0.5%
Taiwanese	1	0.3%	0.5%
Turkish	1	0.3%	0.5%
Greek	1	0.3%	0.5%
Total	348		

Fig. 11 Traits of an effective teacher D2

Survey 002 Traits of an Effective Teacher	
D3 Educational respondents by years teaching	
Years of teaching	#
<6 years	79
6-10 years	67
11-15 years	60
16-20 years	59
21-25 years	31
26-30 years	29
>30 years	23
Total	348

Fig. 12 Traits of an effective teacher D3

Survey 002 Traits of an Effective Teacher	
D4 Educational respondents by years of overseas teaching	
Years of overseas teaching	#
0 years	153
1-5 years	81
6-10 years	44
11-15 years	26
16-20 years	19
21-25 years	15
26-30 years	6
>30 years	4
Total	348

Fig. 13 Traits of an effective teacher D4

Survey 002 Traits of an Effective Teacher	
D4a Educational respondents by % of teaching spent overseas	
% spent overseas	#
0%	153
1-10 %	4
11-20 %	18
21-30 %	17
31-40 %	16
41-50 %	19
51-60 %	14
61-70 %	29
71-80 %	23
81-90 %	20
91-99 %	5
100%	30
Total	348

Fig. 14 Traits of an effective teacher D4a

Survey 002			
Traits of an Effective Teacher			
D5 Educational respondents by current school type			
Current school type		#	%
home	no response	4	1.1%
	State school in home country	61	17.5%
	Independent school in home country	6	1.7%
	International school in home country	114	32.8%
	sub-total	181	53.2%
overseas	International school overseas	150	43.1%
	National school overseas	13	3.7%
	sub-total	163	46.8%
Total		348	100%

Fig. 15 Traits of an effective teacher D5

Survey 002			
Traits of an Effective Teacher			
D5a Educational respondents currently teaching in home country			
Current school type		#	%
home	State school in home country	61	33.7%
	Independent school in home country	6	3.3%
	International school in home country	114	63.0%
Total		181	100.0%

Fig. 16 Traits of an effective teacher D5a

Survey 002			
Traits of an Effective Teacher			
D5b Educational respondents currently teaching overseas			
Current school type		#	%
overseas	International school overseas	150	4.7%
	National school overseas	13	8.0%
Total		163	12.7%

Fig. 17 Traits of an effective teacher D5b

Survey 002			
Traits of an Effective Teacher			
D5c Educational respondents by international setting			
Current school type		#	%
non-international	State school in home country	61	17.7%
	Independent school in home country	6	1.7%
	sub-total	67	19.5%
international	International school in home country	114	33.1%
	International school overseas	150	43.6%
	National school overseas	13	3.8%
	sub-total	277	80.5%
Total		344	100%

Fig. 18 Traits of an effective teacher D5c

Survey 03

Survey 03 was used to investigate (i) the level of importance teachers assigned to different aspects of training and (ii) what training, if any, they had received. Synthesising the data on traits of effective teachers from Survey 02 and the issues identified through the literature review, an initial list of twenty training aspects was compiled. After trialling with a small group of international school colleagues and fellow research students, a list of twelve training aspects was finalised for Survey 03. For part (i) respondents were asked to rate each of the twelve training aspects as either Very important, Important, Quite important, or Not at all important. For part (ii) they were asked to give details of any training they had received for each aspect. An additional space allowed them to indicate other areas of training not listed.

The survey was completed by 284 teachers from international schools worldwide. It was conducted over one year, during visits to schools and at a further Council of International Schools' Recruitment Fair. Again, as with Survey 02, respondents were given a brief explanation and then completed the survey without direct contact. Survey 03 did not include demographic information.

Ratings from part (i) were tabulated to show the levels of importance attributed to each training aspect. The levels of importance were not further defined, so clearly how respondents differentiated between them was subjective (for example, it is recognised that *Quite important* could be considered either more or less important than *Important*). In addition to the individual rating levels, therefore, *Very important*, *Important* and *Quite important* were combined to more clearly indicate any training aspects that were rated as *Not at all important*.

Part (ii) proved more difficult to record due to the varying levels of detail given by respondents and it was concluded that a multiple choice system that included 'none' and 'other' as options would have been much simpler both for the respondents and the researcher. Eventually it was decided to create a simple categorisation system to facilitate tabulating and analysing the information: any training received as part of the respondent's mainstream teacher certification process was categorised as 'university'. All other training listed was categorised as 'ongoing PD'. When no details were given for a training aspect (i.e. when the space was left blank) it was assumed that no training had been received. It is recognised, however, that an affirmative *No training* would have been preferable, as the blanks could be attributable to other factors, for example, oversight, misunderstanding what was expected or too busy to complete this section. The overall pattern however seemed conclusive, showing a very low level of actual training received in any of the training aspects, as well as a substantial mismatch between the training aspects rated as important and the actual training received. This led directly to the next stage of the research: to investigate the extent to which such training was available to teachers.

Reliability and validity

In closing this review of the surveys, consideration of reliability and validity are important. As indicated earlier in this section, there were clear issues of reliability relating both to the survey respondents and the researcher. In general, in all three surveys, respondents were not given preparation time that might have yielded more considered responses. Survey 01 in particular required immediate responses, with the researcher standing by waiting for them to finish. While surveys 02 and 03 were completed away from the researcher, it is unlikely that respondents researched their answers but simply completed them from memory. Given more time and perhaps

instructions that encouraged some research before completion, the results, particularly of survey 03, would likely have been different. Given my relationship as a professional colleague of the respondents, it is likely, even when I did not know the individuals personally, that their responses were coloured by consideration of what I wanted to hear or at least of how their responses might reflect on them professionally. A further question of reliability is raised with the use of ambiguous terms such as 'Very important', 'Important' etc. in Survey 03. In fact the use of such Likert Scales, developed by Rensis Likert in 1932 (Anderson, 1998) is common in surveys despite almost always being open to individual interpretation. In this instance, it would have been possible to further define the different levels of importance, for example, 'Very important - deemed essential for all educators', 'Important – deemed desirable for all educators', but while this may have created greater reliability it may equally have added further ambiguity.

The issue of validity applies not only to the surveys, but extends to the research as a whole, with the key consideration being, 'To what extent can these statistics and conclusions be applied to the wider international education community and beyond that to teacher education generally?' The choice of three different data sources is felt to increase the research validity, as academic data from the literature and practitioner data from the surveys correlate with the descriptive data from the researcher's own experiences. The survey respondents represented a broad range of types of international school and it therefore seems reasonable to apply this research to the wider international school community, although as the community expands and therefore changes, it would be important to revisit such assumptions. The leap to the wider field of teacher education is clearly much bigger, connections more tenuous and assumptions more dangerous. While several studies identified in this thesis describe similar problems in national systems and seem therefore to indicate a certain level of validity, such studies represent only a tiny percentage of the quantity and range of educational systems worldwide, and much more extensive research would be needed before wider validity could be claimed. It seems reasonable to state however that, where such problems do occur, the research could validly be applied and the proposed model considered as part of remedial measures.

Review of training

As described above, the planned comparative review of training was originally intended to focus on selected case-study countries. When it became apparent that this needed to be changed it was decided to link the training review to the teacher nationality data gathered in Survey 02, focusing on the four countries generating most international teachers, namely the UK, USA, Australia and Canada. The rationale for this was that in countries generating high numbers of teachers for the international schools sector, the existing training might be expected to be more closely aligned with those teachers' needs.

The training review was conducted through systematic internet research, examining the website of each university and college offering initial and post-graduate teacher education programmes. Supplemented by Higher Education Directories, the internet provided inexpensive and relatively easy access to every teacher education institution. In fact, the sheer numbers of institutions, together with the variable navigability of individual websites, meant that this was a much bigger task than I had envisaged and took several months. My initial search used 3 search words - 'teacher' 'education' and the country in question 'UK', 'USA', 'Australia' or 'Canada' - to identify appropriate

sites listing teacher education institutions. This initial step was relatively straightforward but each country then necessitated a slightly different process. I will outline these country by country.

UK

From the initial search words ('teacher', 'education' and 'UK') I selected the British Council website (www.educationuk.org). The course search option allowed me to select 'teaching' plus 'undergraduate' or 'postgraduate' which listed teacher education institutions. Each institution's website was then accessed individually using (i) the search term 'international' and (ii) by entering the faculty of education pages and scanning each course for those with any element of international in the title. The criteria used for this level of the search were:

- the general philosophy of the programme should have an explicit international focus
- a significant proportion of the courses within the programme should have an international focus
- a significant proportion of these courses should be compulsory not just optional, i.e. an embedded part of the programme

USA

From the initial search words ('teacher', 'education' and 'USA') I selected the website of the National Center for Education Statistics (nces.ed.gov) which listed teacher education institutions state by state. As above, each institution's website was then accessed individually using (i) the search term 'international' and (ii) by entering the faculty of education pages and scanning each course title.

Australia

From the initial search words ('teacher', 'education' and 'Australia') I selected the Teaching Australia website (www.teachingaustralia.edu.au) which then listed a further website for each state. Each of these separate websites listed ITE and Postgraduate institutions. As above, each institution's website was then accessed individually using (i) the search term 'international' and (ii) by entering the faculty of education pages and scanning each course title.

Canada

From the initial search words ('teacher', 'education' and 'Canada') I selected the Canada-universities website (www.canada-universities.net) which listed institutions by province. As above, each institution's website was then accessed individually using (i) the search term 'international' and (ii) by entering the faculty of education pages and scanning each course title.

For each of the four countries then, examples that met the above criteria were listed with extracts from the course and programme descriptions. The main aim of this was to illustrate that there are examples that can act as models for further development within both initial and ongoing teacher education. With this in mind an exception was made to include one institution from beyond the four main countries investigated, as Det Nodvendige Seminarium (The Necessary Teacher Training College) in Denmark exists specifically to prepare teachers for international contexts.

It is recognised that this process was potentially imprecise and incomplete, yet in the absence of comprehensive central directories, it seemed extensive and systematic enough to provide a valuable overview of internationalism in teacher education institutions in the four countries providing most international teachers to international

schools. The resulting pattern was similar for each country, with each revealing several examples of internationally-orientated postgraduate courses but few initial teacher education courses. As noted with the literature review, growing awareness of internationalism during the research period seemed to generate a rapid increase in the number of programmes claiming to include international elements, so the training review was also revisited on a smaller scale 30 months after the initial search. In the UK, USA and Australia (but, for reasons discussed in Chapter 4, not in Canada) the search of institutional websites using the search word ‘international’ yielded many new examples although I found that many of the claims to internationalising actually consisted only of increased marketing drives to recruit overseas students to the institution rather than the content or focus of the programmes.

Seven domains of knowledge and skills

One of the central aims of the thesis was to develop a model of training that would meet the needs of international teachers by addressing the most important aspects of international education. As the numerous issues facing international teachers were identified through the literature review and common agreements emerged about traits of effective teachers and the training they deemed important, there was a need to synthesise these into a coherent structure.

The seven domains that form the base of the structure created have individual significance as well as together representing a comprehensive model of teacher preparation for international schools. Domain I, *international education in context*, is concerned with the big picture, and teachers’ familiarity with what international education is and how it works, as well as an awareness of education systems and practices worldwide. Domains II, III and IV are concerned with teachers’ awareness of a range of student characteristics – the breadth of *student diversity* generally (II), and specifically *multiculturalism* (III) and *multilingualism* (IV), which are of fundamental importance in international education. Domain V, *transition*, examines mobility and the associated problems it can cause, not only to students and parents, but to mobile teachers themselves. Domain VI, *internationalising curriculum*, focuses on how teachers address these characteristics and problems by internationalising both what and how they teach. And finally, Domain VII, *the reflective international teacher*, focuses on teachers’ mindsets and the need for, and issues associated with, continuing professional development within the international education context.

Figure 19 shows how the issues, traits and training aspects were synthesised into the seven domains and the model then develops each domain into a discrete module of training, although clearly, as the domains are broad, there are many overlaps. This is felt to strengthen the model as the training in each domain would expose teachers to each aspect from several different perspectives.

Domains (and issues identified)	Traits of effective teachers 1-15 (from Survey 02)	Training aspects 1- 12 (from Survey 03)
I: International education in context	(13) independent (14) calm and patient in dealing with different systems (15) financially astute	(5) introduction to international education
II: Student characteristics and learning	(1) differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles (2) equal opportunities awareness (3) gender sensitivity (6) adaptable classroom management style (7) efficient student assessment (9) pedagogical understanding	(2) multilingual classroom (3) multicultural classroom (4) students in transition
III: Multiculturalism	(4) cultural sensitivity	(3) multicultural classroom (6) intercultural understanding
IV: Teaching in multilingual classrooms	(11) language acquisition and development	(1) comparative languages (2) multilingual classroom
V: Transition	(5) transition sensitivity	(4) students in transition (7) teachers in transition
VI: Internationalising curricula	(8) ICT proficient (10) subject knowledge with a world view	(8) world arts (9) world current affairs (10) world history (11) world geography
VII: The reflective international teacher	(12) open to new ideas and perspectives <i>Ultimately traits 1-15 were all deemed to relate to this domain</i>	(12) personal foreign language study <i>Ultimately training aspects 1-12 were all deemed to relate to this domain</i>

Fig. 19 Traits and training aspects synthesised into the seven domains

A pilot model was trialled for two levels of direct training workshops for new and experienced international teachers, implemented successfully over a period of three years. As well as being successful through direct training, the pilot model attracted attention from several prominent educational organisations interested in the concept of certification for international teachers, for example, the International Baccalaureate, the European Council for International Schools, the British Council, the National Association of Independent Schools, the Office of Overseas Schools, and Oxford Brookes, Deakin, Melbourne, California State and George Mason Universities.

The current, more comprehensive, model presented in this thesis, incorporates the original pilot model as its Foundation Course, but, in line with the title ‘Developing a model of initial and ongoing training for the international teacher’ it also includes an ongoing professional Record of Achievement portfolio, as well as the initial course. The pilot model was also used as a base for the development of the International Teacher Certificate for experienced international teachers launched in 2006 by the European Council of International Schools.

To summarise, then, this thesis presents research into key issues facing international teachers; the knowledge, skills and characteristics they need to effectively deal with these issues; and the training available to help them develop these. The research was carried out through a series of surveys and reviews of the literature and existing training programmes, supplemented with anecdotal evidence gleaned from extensive personal experience within the international schools sector. In the following chapter, the question ‘What are international teachers?’ will be examined, in relation to what motivates them to teach overseas; where they come from; what traits effective international teachers share; and what training would help them optimise their effectiveness.

CHAPTER 4

INTERNATIONAL TEACHERS

What are international teachers?

This chapter poses the fundamental question, ‘What are international teachers?’ Having defined international teachers in Chapter 1 as including both those teaching outside their home country and those teaching in an international context within their home country, this chapter addresses two key questions that are central to my research: ‘What influences teachers to teach outside their home country?’ and ‘What knowledge, skills and characteristics do they need to be successful in internationalised contexts?’ As a sub-question relating to what influences teachers to teach outside their home country, I also look at where international teachers come from, i.e. what are the main countries of origin of international teachers. These questions are explored using my own survey results, as well as the literature.

The literature attempting to define ‘international teachers’ generally does so either by reference to their qualities, or by categorising their origins. Garton (2000) sets out to combine the two, outlining both the challenges administrators face in identifying and recruiting the best teachers, and how such challenges vary depending on the category of teacher, which he defines as host country nationals (citizens of the country in which the school is located), local hire expatriates (citizens of other countries currently living in the country in which the school is located) and overseas hire expatriates (those brought in from other countries specifically to take up their school positions). While he makes numerous references to ‘identifying the best teachers’, however, he never actually defines what he means by this, focusing instead primarily on the processes and practices of recruiting. While it is clear that for most administrators recruiting what might be considered an ‘ideal international teacher’ is often compromised by pragmatic considerations such as budget, local work permit regulations and teacher availability, it is less than clear what an ‘ideal’ international teacher is. Indeed, in keeping with Cohen, Manion & Morrison’s assertion (1996) that education is context-specific and context-dependent, such an ‘ideal’ may not exist.

Whether in national or international systems, large cities or small villages, each school has its own distinct identity, determined by its students, staff and parents; its physical facilities and location; its curriculum and teaching styles; its philosophy and policies. Within the international schools sector considered in this thesis, there are numerous examples of groups of schools sharing names, policies, philosophy and even geographical location (Southbank International Schools, American Community Schools and British Schools of America to name but a few) yet each individual school within the group still exhibits its own very distinct identity. As Hayden (2006) observes, ‘Given the diversity of schools operating under the ‘international school’ umbrella, it would be surprising were it not the case that the teaching population in such schools is also varied.’ Yet, a contradiction seems to exist, for, despite widespread acceptance of, and even pride in, the uniqueness of each school, the concept of an ‘ideal’ international teacher seems to persist.

Gardner’s model of Multiple Intelligences (1983) is referred to throughout this thesis as an aid to understanding how students are diverse, and I propose that the same model can be applied to help explain the apparent contradiction above. Gardner uses the model to describe how one individual displays not one but a profile of multiple intelligences,

with each intelligence evident to a greater or lesser degree within each profile. If a similar model is applied to the multiple characteristics of international schools, each school will, likewise, display a unique profile, and it follows therefore that each school will also have its own 'ideal' teacher profile. While it is possible to identify a generic set of characteristics common to all international teachers, each individual teacher displays a unique profile formed from different measures of each of these characteristics. Appreciating the heterogeneity of international schools and teacher profiles, and the importance of a good match between the two, is an essential trait for successful international teachers, and as such, is discussed in depth in the following chapters.

What influences people to teach internationally?

As a starting point for identifying common characteristics, Figure 20 looks at what influences people to teach internationally. Based on my own experience of international teaching and administration, from colleagues, and from recruiting and orientating new teachers, it was apparent that there were multiple influences on teachers' decisions to teach internationally, and the many different, often intriguing, responses to an initial survey confirmed this. As described in Chapter 3, using a list of influences drawn from the literature, and trialled with colleagues at the International School of Amsterdam, the survey was conducted with 70 randomly-selected teachers attending an annual autumn conference of the European Council of International Schools and who were already teaching outside their home country. The survey results show wide diversity, with 40 different influences cited by the 70 respondents, many of which reflect those listed by Hayden (2006, p.75) in her consideration of 'What prompts an individual to dip a toe in the water of international school teaching for the first time?'

Survey 001 What influenced you to teach overseas?		
ID	Factor	Responses
1	Interested in travel	50
2	Looking for adventure	41
3	Different education system	25
4	Career advancement	17
5	Better salary package	17
6	* Other...	15
7	Better opportunities e.g. in particular subject	15
8	Boredom	15
9	Moved to join partner in his / her home country	11
10	Moved with partner's job - voluntary move	9
11	Mobile / expatriate family	9
12	Following example of friend - teacher	8
13	Better education system	7
14	Better climate	5
15	New start after relationship difficulties	4
16	Returning to family roots	4
17	Seeking partner	3
18	Following example of friend - non-teacher	3
19	Moved with partner's job - company dictated	3
20	International school experience as a child	3
21	Work with aid agency	2
22	Spread the word on a particular type of education	2
23	Following example of family member – non-teacher	2
24	Mixed-nationality parents	2
25	Voluntary work	1
26	Following example of family member – teacher	1
27	Missionary work	0
28	Family bereavement	0
	Total surveys	70

Fig. 20 Table: What influences people to teach outside their home country?

In contrast to the heterogeneity of responses, a level of homogeneity is also apparent, with the main influences on teachers' decisions to try teaching internationally clearly emerging as 'an interest in travel' and 'a sense of adventure' - perhaps unsurprisingly, a very high proportion of the respondents ticked one or both of these. These two very general influences were often indicated in combination with one or more other, more specific, influences. It seems therefore that while the actual point-in-time motivator may be something else, the interest in travel and sense of adventure are common factors in - or even, one could argue, prerequisites for - the decisions.

As previously indicated, Garton (2000) identifies three main categories of international teacher: host-country nationals, local-hire expatriates and overseas-hire expatriates. Based on the diversity and homogeneity of influences illustrated in the survey data above, and on my own international school experience, I contend that this can be extended to the four categories described in Figure 21, with two types of local-hire expatriates being considered as separate categories, depending on their typical length of stay.

Categories of international teacher	
Locals	are host-country nationals working in an international school within their own country – they may choose the school for idealistic reasons (for example, international orientation) or pragmatic reasons (for example, convenient location or higher salary). Locals tend to show a high degree of host-country integration and independence, as well as stability, but may be less likely to have the specific knowledge, skills and characteristics required of international teachers.
Accompanying spouses	are one type of Garton’s ‘local-hire expatriates’ who move with a non-teaching husband or wife employed in an international capacity. The spouse’s organisation generally determines when and to where they will relocate, often without consideration of personal and family convenience, and so the accompanying spouse is usually a short-term hire. The employer also typically handles all relocation details, which not only reduces the individual’s level of independence, but also the extent of host-country integration. The teacher who is an accompanying spouse may choose a school purely for convenience, and may neither possess nor be well-disposed to developing the knowledge, skills & characteristics required of international teachers.
Settlers	are a second category of Garton’s ‘local-hire expatriates’ who are usually longer-term hires. These teachers may move once for a specific purpose, such as to be with a partner or to return to family roots, or they may begin as globetrotters and then choose to stay in one place, often due to a personal relationship with a local. The characteristics exhibited by this category of teachers change according to the amount of time they stay in the adopted country. Initially they show similar characteristics to globetrotters (see below), but the longer they stay, the more characteristics they share with locals, as described above. Settlers tend to show high levels of stability, independence in navigating the country’s systems, and host-country integration, being more likely to learn the host country language, and even take host-country citizenship.
Globetrotters	(Garton’s overseas-hire expatriates) have purposefully chosen to teach internationally, extending their profession by adding a travel element, and typically moving from country to country. They show a high degree of self-determination and selectivity, usually having free choice of location and timing, and so can plan relocations to suit personal and family circumstances. They are more likely to have the knowledge, skills and characteristics required of international teachers or at least be better disposed to developing them, and yet often show low degrees of host-country integration, for example, typically learning the language, if at all, only to a very superficial level.

Fig. 21 Categories of international teacher

As Hayden emphasises (2006, pp.76-82), it is also interesting to consider these categories from the recruiter’s perspective. Garton notes that locals (host-country nationals) are recruited for a variety of reasons, including schools’ efforts to fulfil mission statements which talk of integrating with the local community; national work permit requirements that limit schools’ freedom to hire expatriates; financial expediency in hiring teachers who do not need expensive relocation packages; the stability local teachers can provide to counterbalance transient expatriate hires; and, not least, simple availability, which is likely to be of increasing significance in view of the growing teacher shortages discussed later in this chapter. While there are clear advantages to hiring this category of teacher, there may also be issues (both perceived and actual) relating to their lack of internationally-orientated knowledge, skills and characteristics, and such hiring may represent one of the pragmatic compromises mentioned earlier that contradict the notion of an ‘ideal’ international teacher.

In contrast, recruiters hire globetrotters (overseas-hire expatriates) primarily for these internationally-orientated knowledge, skills and characteristics, and it could be argued that such teachers are closer to a perceived ‘ideal’. A regular intake of teachers who have experience in other international settings is often regarded as essential to bring vital new perspectives to a school. Yet these teachers do not come without associated issues: they typically absorb a high percentage of the school’s staffing budget; they take time to settle in and become optimally effective; and they create some instability with

their unpredictable length of stay. Yet it is hard to imagine any school that considers itself truly international not investing in this category of teacher to some degree.

My two remaining categories, accompanying spouses and settlers, emerge from Garton's single category of local-hire expatriates. For recruiters, these teachers can represent the perfect combination: the knowledge, skills and characteristics of an international teacher at a local price. Each of the two sub-groups, however, can have specific disadvantages relating to length of stay. Accompanying spouses are often subject to sudden relocation at times determined by the spouse's company and therefore inconvenient to the school, while conversely, settlers may stay longer than the school wishes, as they are not geographically mobile and tend to have fewer alternatives within the local system.

So, in addition to providing an interesting, albeit relatively simple, starting point for investigating the question, 'What are international teachers?' the results of such surveys investigating the influences on their decisions to teach internationally could also provide valuable information for international school recruiters. There is ample anecdotal evidence that international schools worldwide are having increasing difficulty recruiting teachers: if recruiters can better understand what influences people to teach internationally, they may improve their ability both to recruit and retain teachers. It seems that there is scope, therefore, for further detailed investigation of the influences cited, for example, the balance between those based on idealism as opposed to the more pragmatic; how influences are grouped for particular individuals; and how influences differ between genders, age groups and nationalities. The outcomes of such investigation could inform the international schools' recruitment process, perhaps encouraging a more systematic approach, including purposeful targeting of specific ages, types or profiles of teacher, rather than the somewhat opportunist and reactive approach that seems to be typical.

Where do international teachers come from?

In considering 'What are international teachers?' a further question arises: 'Where do international teachers come from?' Figure 22 shows nationality data on 163 teachers and administrators working in international schools outside their home country. While 24 nationalities are represented, which could initially be regarded as diverse, 69% is made up of only four nationalities: British, American (US), Australian and Canadian. A further 9.3% list mixed nationality, and 70% of these also include one of the four predominating nationalities.

Survey 002		
Traits of an Effective Teacher		
D5bi Educational respondents currently teaching overseas by nationality		
Nationality	#	%
British	64	39.3%
US	36	22.1%
Australian	11	6.7%
Canadian	11	6.7%
German	5	3.1%
New Zealand	5	3.1%
French	4	2.5%
Spanish	4	2.5%
Irish	3	1.8%
Belgian	2	1.2%
Brazilian	2	1.2%
Dutch	2	1.2%
Japanese	2	1.2%
Swiss	2	1.2%
Austrian	1	0.6%
Czech	1	0.6%
Danish	1	0.6%
Finnish	1	0.6%
Greek	1	0.6%
Guatamalan	1	0.6%
Indian	1	0.6%
Italian	1	0.6%
Norwegian	1	0.6%
Taiwanese	1	0.6%
	163	100.0%

Fig. 22 Table: Where do international teachers come from?

From my own experience these survey figures seem to be representative of the international school community in general, with the vast majority of international school teachers originating from the UK, US, Australia and Canada. Within a random selection of fifty schools from a directory of international schools (Council of International Schools 2006) the average number of staff nationalities stated is 14.3, with the range being from 43 to 3, yet these figures are somewhat misleading, as most schools follow a pattern similar to that shown by the survey results, with a high percentage of teachers representing a small number of countries, and only a handful of teachers representing the remaining nationalities.

However, with no central source of statistics, definitive figures are hard to find. Canterford (2003, cited in Hayden 2006) highlighted this, noting that of three major agencies recruiting teachers for international schools, only one, International Schools' Services, routinely published nationality data. That there is no central source of statistics is hardly surprising given the diversity and independence of the schools in the sector, but in my experience, even individual international schools, while they do typically record and advertise the nationality make-up of their current faculty, do not systematically accumulate such data beyond the current school year. This lack of data, and therefore lack of analysis, leaves a significant gap in the information available about international schools and international teachers. It might be thought that this is simply a failing of the diverse and uncoordinated group that is the international education sector,

yet the information gap seems to exist in a much wider sense, in both national and worldwide contexts.

Very few countries keep accurate figures on either the number of teachers they train who leave to go overseas, or the number of teachers they hire from overseas. This paucity of data was noted in the development of the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol (2004) and resulted in two studies of teacher mobility and recruitment within the 53 Commonwealth countries. In a follow up article, 'Teacher migration brain drain or brain gain?' Degazon-Johnson (2007, p13) reports that 'With few exceptions...countries are unable to provide reasons for teachers leaving their jobs...High turnover rates of 8 to 13 per cent apply for many countries, from larger ones such as Australia and New Zealand to small ones such as St. Kitts/Nevis...UNESCO has recently proposed that a teacher turnover rate in excess of 6.5 per cent a year is problematic in an education system.'

The 'supply migrants' Degazon-Johnson refers to form a new category of international teacher, recruited from one country in order to fill a shortage of supply in another country, often through very specifically targeted recruitment campaigns. He identifies several factors that can create distinct cycles in teacher supply and demand:

- birth rates - a birth rate boom is generally followed by 10-15 years of higher student enrolment and therefore higher demand for teachers
- entrance requirements for ITT courses - if entrance requirements are lower, the supply of teachers is higher
- educational policy changes - for example if maximum class size is lowered, the demand for teachers is higher
- general levels of employment - when general levels of unemployment are higher, the number of people taking ITT courses increases so the supply of teachers is higher

In addition, ironically, teacher migration itself becomes a factor in both supply and demand. The so-called current 'brain drain', particularly from developing to developed countries has been the subject of much research and even controversy. The work of Sives, Morgan and Appleton (2006) is just one example of many studies of this phenomenon: 'the migration of teachers is an underemphasised aspect of globalisation, and potentially hinders the international goals of education for all and its wider impacts.'

The following extracts from India Together, an electronic news publication covering educational and other issues throughout India, further illustrate this significant and growing problem (Thomas et al 2003).

'Although accurate statistics of the swelling migration of teachers are unavailable, it is estimated that in the past two years, hundreds of Indian teachers have been recruited by American and British schools. And more are planning to wing their way abroad. Last year in a paper entitled Managing Trade in Educational Services: Issues in India's response to WTO Negotiations, Satish Y. Deodhar, assistant professor at the prestigious Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad, noted that "already about 10,000 secondary school teachers are working outside the country for sometime now, and increasingly there is a growing demand for Indian teachers, especially in mathematics, sciences and English." '

‘The new wave of academic migration is being powered by an acute shortage of teachers in western countries, especially the United States and Britain. It is estimated that there are as many as 22,000 vacancies for school teachers in the US of which more than 10 percent could be open to Indians.’

‘Currently over 10,000 foreign teachers in the US are employed under the H-1B visa which is valid for three years with the possibility of renewal for another three years. Opportunities for teachers do exist under other visa categories, though for shorter periods. However apart from the US there is rising demand for Indian teachers in the UK and the Middle East, indeed even in China for 30,000 teachers to teach English. However the Chinese aren’t yet reconciled to the idea of Asians teaching English to other Asians. But it’s just a matter of time before this mindset changes.’

‘In the forums of the World Trade Organisation it has been a long-standing demand of developing nations that trade liberalisation should not be restricted to removing barriers to cross-border trade in goods, but should also free-up trade in services. If this proposition is accepted as seems likely, there is every likelihood that India could become the world’s largest supplier of trained school teachers to developed countries.’

‘Meanwhile though the accelerating exodus of school teachers for foreign shores is likely to cause short term difficulties for school managements and their students, it will also give a much needed fillip to the teaching profession by attracting bright young people to join this hitherto unrewarding vocation which is perceived as being devoid of professional or financial opportunities. This in turn will raise standards of school education in India which remain poor and are largely responsible for the rock-bottom achievement levels of the great majority of India’s 200 million school children.’

In the light of such figures, Sives, Morgan and Appleton’s conclusion (2004) that ‘There is a gap in knowledge of teachers’ movements...’ seems somewhat simplistic, but their proposed research to ‘understand the influences, causes and impacts of teacher migration’ is clearly urgently needed by both national and international education systems worldwide.

Given the apparent scale of teacher migration globally, it is pertinent to ask why in international schools, a handful of nationalities predominate? One obvious answer is language: given that English is the main working language for the majority of international schools, it is hardly surprising that English-speaking nations dominate in the supply of teachers. Yet this cannot be the whole answer. There are 63 countries listing English as an official language (Vistawide.com 2008) yet only a handful of these supply significant numbers of teachers to the international circuit. Issues such as passport and visa regulations, access to recruitment channels, and simply a lack of information about the opportunities that exist, are likely to be part of the imbalance. Difficulties with international recognition of teacher certification are also a significant factor and even within the European Union and the United States, cross-state acceptance of teacher certification is not automatic. Amongst other countries worldwide it is often a

matter of individually negotiated agreements, often related to historical political alignments, such as the UK's special status accorded Commonwealth countries. Teachers holding certification from other countries may be required to re-train or attend an induction course, as, for example, with Simon Fraser University's Professional Qualification Programme in British Columbia, Canada (Simon Fraser University 2003). Supply and demand also enter into the picture, and recognition requirements are typically relaxed in times of high demand, as, for example, with the recent UK-drive to hire from New Zealand and Australia.

This difficulty of cross-nation recognition, however, is merely a symptom of a broader issue: the lack of teacher preparation and certification, especially at primary school level. For decades this has been a central issue for international and national development organisations concerned with improving educational quality, as illustrated by a plethora of publications from the World Bank, UNESCO and countless others. The Education Testing Service report, *Preparing Teachers Around the World* (2003) highlights how widely teacher education systems differ, even amongst nations showing high student achievement levels. International schools are typically fee-charging and have a strong business ethos, with a high degree of accountability to parents. As such they are unlikely to hire teachers from educational systems that do not have high level quality controls in place, and in fact there seems to be a distinct hierarchy that could be construed at best as residual colonialism, and at worst as downright prejudice, with qualifications from UK, USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand being most widely accepted; those from most European countries, South Africa, India, Sri Lanka and Hong Kong often being regarded as acceptable but of lesser quality; and those from most Asian, African and South American countries less likely to be accepted outside their own region. The hierarchy is often further reinforced by the work permit requirements of the host country - again an issue that should be better understood by teachers when they embark on an international school career path, as such requirements and restrictions often come as a disappointing surprise. Indeed, the extent to which this hierarchy is a cause or an effect of the staffing nationality statistics for international schools may be another avenue worthy of further research.

Another aspect of recognition worthy of brief consideration here is the non-acceptance of 'returnee teachers' - teachers who teach outside their own country and then return home, either temporarily or permanently. Given the concerns expressed by countries losing high percentages of teachers to migration, it might be assumed that teachers would be welcomed back and that the broader perspectives gained from working outside the home country would be seen as positive. Anecdotal evidence from colleagues and studies by Matthews (1988) and Black and Scott (1997) suggest otherwise. Following their study of factors affecting the employment prospects of teachers returning to the UK after working in other countries, Black and Scott concluded that 'There is evidence that any experience of teaching abroad is at best seen as irrelevant, and at worst seen as a negative factor, when applying for posts in the UK...The analysis also reveals that the teachers perceive both overt and covert prejudice against them, although the reasons for this are difficult to determine.' Matthews commented that '...for teachers, experience abroad is largely discounted when applying for posts in domestic systems. Most international school teachers are familiar with the difficulty of re-entering their national system and the failure to recognise time spent overseas as anything other than a paid holiday from serious teaching.' In fact most international school teachers only become familiar with the difficulty when they actually attempt to re-enter the national system, often at a critical point in time - again, an earlier awareness of the broader implications and consequences of international teaching would enable teachers to be better prepared.

Such findings of prejudice are surprising enough in the light of significant teacher shortages, but are cause for serious concern given recent government initiatives in many countries to encourage greater international-mindedness in schools. In the UK and throughout the EU, for example, large amounts of money are allocated for teacher exchanges through such sources as the Socrates Project, and schools are encouraged (and eventually required) to work towards the DfES International Award. It seems self-evident therefore that teachers returning from international positions should be regarded as valuable, yet the evidence suggests the opposite. In my early career in the UK, each of my classes had students of several different nationalities – Iranian, Greek, Chinese, Vietnamese, Jamaican, Pakistani, Nigerian – if I was to return now, I believe my two decades of overseas experience would make me a more effective teacher in such schools. Yet, as Black and Scott found, while it seems that school heads do recognise that returning international teachers might bring particular skills, experience and a refreshing insight, they were clearly less likely to be hired, as the main factor sought seemed to be current experience in a directly comparable school. In fact there is some evidence (Grant 1989) that any break in normal career path is seen as negative – for example, maternity / parental leave or working in the UK but in private schools, so this may not only be due to time spent overseas. Black and Scott also point out a possible advantage that returning international teachers might have – offering short-term contracts now seems to be more common in the UK since the change from central to local management of schools, and while this is less likely to appeal to UK-based teachers because of the lack of job-security it represents, teachers who have taught overseas are more likely to be familiar and comfortable with this kind of approach. There is definite scope for investigation of whether the recent importance placed on international-mindedness is accompanied by a more positive attitude to international teaching experience.

So, given the apparent lack of value attached in some national systems to the knowledge, skills and characteristics of international teachers, it seems that it may be incorrect to assume that they are deemed necessary or even desirable in national teachers. The generic literature on traits of effective teachers, however, which is generally situated in national contexts, shows a high degree of convergence with literature on effective international teachers and indeed with my own survey data from international schools. The next section of chapter 4 will illustrate this convergence by examining these traits in some depth, and attempting to justify seven domains deemed to be essential for effective international teachers.

What knowledge, skills and characteristics do effective international teachers need?

A joint project between Li Po Chun United World College in Hong Kong and Beijing No.1 School (Cheng et al 1998) – despite differences between the two schools in class size, pedagogical approach, language and student body – found very close agreement about the ‘qualities, skills and knowledge of an effective teacher’. The groups agreed that an effective teacher should possess subject/content knowledge, broad educational knowledge and knowledge of their students, as well as being flexible, adaptable, goal-orientated, an effective communicator and having a sense of responsibility. Not surprisingly, there were also some differences, specifically that the Chinese teachers placed greater value on the idea of a model teacher who exhibited all or many of these traits and who acted as a model not only for students but also for other teachers, often in

a formal 'mentor' role. The international teachers placed greater stress on good time-management, adaptability and sensitivity to students.

As an extension of this, when internationalism is taken in its broadest sense to include diversity of culture, ethnicity, nationality, language and religion, many schools worldwide could in some sense be considered international, and indeed as Hill (2000) points out, 'International schools are not the only providers of international education. National schools, both state and private, are more than equal partners...It is interesting to note that of the 1080 total IBO schools in May 2000, approximately 43% are state schools. Of the remaining 57%, approximately one third are private national schools.' His figures indicate that more than 60% of schools using the IBO programme are not international by definition or by name, although it seems safe to assume that a large percentage of them are international by nature or by intent, and as such, would require that their teachers have internationally-orientated knowledge, skills and characteristics. Richards (1998) expresses justifiable concern about differentials between local and expatriate teachers – salaries, contractual conditions and indeed levels of professional respect regarding teaching methodologies, language variations etc. – and he emphasises the role of internationally accessible staff development programmes in redressing such imbalances. This further strengthens the case for a clearer understanding and a common definition of the knowledge, skills and characteristics required of international teachers, which would provide a consistent base for judgement of performance irrespective of category of origin.

Traits of effective teachers

The Sanskrit poet, Bharathari (cited in Monga 2006), suggests that a student learns:

- One quarter of his knowledge from his teachers
- One quarter from his own intelligence
- One quarter from his fellow students
- One quarter from the passage of time

While this seems a very appealingly balanced view, it is more common for researchers, educators and parents to assign a greater proportion of responsibility to the teacher, emphasising the key role of their knowledge, skills and overall effectiveness, as well as the positive relationship between student learning and teacher flexibility, creativity and adaptability (Darling-Hammond 2000; Shulman 1986; Doyle 1985). Such views are consistent with my own survey findings, presented later in this chapter: the individual characteristic identified by teachers, parents and students as most important for effective international teachers was that of 'differentiated teaching for diverse student needs', which would undoubtedly require that teachers are flexible, creative and adaptable.

Sylvester (2002) differentiates between 'inclusive' and 'encapsulated' international schools' missions and it seems that this difference between schools that are 'internationally-minded' and schools that are 'internationally-located' might be crucial in determining the profile of teacher required. While both types of school would seek effective teachers, i.e. showing competences and traits such as those described below by Shulman in Figure 23 and Hamachek in Figure 24, schools that are purposefully internationally-minded would look for additional knowledge, skills and characteristics relating specifically to the school's sense of internationalism, such as those proposed by Pike and Selby in Figure 25, Merryfield in Figure 26 and Clough and Holden in Figure 27.

Shulman's *Seven types of knowledge common to experienced, competent teachers* were defined in the context of 1980's educational reforms in the USA. In common with much of the rest of the world, education in the USA in the earlier part of the century had defined teacher competencies almost entirely by subject knowledge, while during the 1970's this had swung to focus almost entirely on pedagogical methodology. Shulman's work suggested a balance of the two, emphasising, not only knowledge about the subject or the students being taught, but also understanding of how to apply that knowledge effectively. Writing in the same context, Hamachek's focus on the more subjective aspects of teacher characteristics, values and behaviours, can be considered complementary to Shulman's focus on the objective knowledge components.

Shulman's Seven types of knowledge common to experienced, competent teachers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Content knowledge (knowledge of the subject being taught)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pedagogical content knowledge (how to make the content understandable and interesting for the students)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General pedagogical knowledge (different teaching techniques, strategies for managing student behaviour)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Curriculum knowledge (knowledge of the approved curriculum, syllabuses, objectives, assessments etc.)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge of learners and their characteristics (understanding student development and how they learn)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge of educational contexts (how schools and classrooms work in particular geo/social contexts)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge of educational aims, values, and their philosophical and historical grounds

Fig.23 Seven types of knowledge common to experienced, competent teachers (Shulman 1986)

Hamachek's Thirteen traits of effective teachers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher enthusiasm positively correlated with student achievement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A sense of fairness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More proactive than reactive
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good at communicating what is known
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possess broad interests
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thorough preparation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Value academic achievement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assume responsibility for students' learning
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consider needs and abilities of their students when planning instructional strategies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concerned about increasing student self-esteem as much as increasing student knowledge
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interested in getting to know students better
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure their students have ample time to accomplish learning objectives
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flexible (as opposed to rigid) behaviour

Fig. 24 Thirteen traits of effective teachers (Hamachek 1990)

By contrast, the traits and competences proposed by Pike and Selby and Clough and Holden emerge from the context of the Global Education movement in the UK and, in the case of Merryfield, in the USA. Pike and Selby's *Global Teacher profile* was developed as part of a major teacher training project undertaken in the 1980's by the World Studies Trust, newly established to promote ' the knowledge, attitudes and skills which young people need in order to practice social and environmental responsibility in

a multicultural society and interdependent world' (World Studies Trust 2008). Clough and Holden's comprehensive list of *Competences required of the global teacher* attempts to inject an element of internationally-orientated reflection and responsibility into an initial teacher training system focused narrowly on the core subjects of the UK's National Curriculum Framework. Their emphasis on the promotion of democratic processes within the classroom indicates the start of the current UK focus on citizenship, both national and global.

However, despite the apparent increased awareness during the 1990's of the importance of international perspectives, in 2002 Merryfield (pp 18-21) was still emphasising the need for teachers who systematically 'confront stereotypes and exotica and resist simplification of other cultures and global issues; foster the habit of examining multiple perspectives; teach about power, discrimination and injustice; and provide cross-cultural experiential learning, despite differences in their communities, student populations or curriculum mandates', a call echoed by Young and Commins (2002) as summarised in Figure 28. Young and Commins' work also illustrates the shift in terminology, in the UK at least, from Global Education to the more personalised Global Citizenship.

Pike and Selby's Global Teacher: a profile	
The global teacher:	
•	is globalcentric rather than ethnocentric or nationcentric
•	is concerned about culture and perspective
•	is future-oriented
•	is a facilitator
•	has a profound belief in human potential
•	is concerned with the development of the whole person
•	employs a range of teaching/learning styles in the classroom
•	sees learning as a process that is lifelong
•	tries to be congruent
•	is rights-respectful and seeks to shift the focus and locus of power and decision-making in the classroom
•	seeks 'functional interdependence' across the curriculum
•	is a community teacher

Fig. 25 The global teacher: a profile (Pike and Selby 1988)

Merryfield's Traits of teachers with a 'world view'	
•	global knowledge, both general and content-specific
•	cross-cultural experiences, both personal and simulated
•	global education infused throughout teacher education programmes
•	preparation for dealing with the controversial issues that global education raises
•	preparation in making appropriate curricular connections and planning instruction that draws on multicultural education, peace education and other related fields

Fig. 26 Traits of teachers with a 'world view' (Merryfield 1995)

Clough and Holden's Competences required of the global teacher	
Promotion of democratic processes	
Person-related	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> actively listening to children in the classroom
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> acknowledging the views of children and drawing on their experiences
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> responding to such observations through subsequent planning
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> evaluating own contribution to discussion
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> awareness of gender issues and of challenges facing children with special educational needs
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> awareness of cultural stereotyping and the challenges facing children from ethnic minority backgrounds
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> taking positive action to ensure equal access to learning for all pupils
Task-related	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> encouraging children to listen to each other, to take turns and take responsibility
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> facilitating collaborative group work and democratic decision making
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> using new formats of decision making which the children suggest
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> introducing children to an understanding of rights and responsibilities
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> encouraging children to participate democratically in the community and in the wider world
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> encouraging children to think about their rights and responsibilities in the future
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> encouraging children to take justice and equality as starting points for decision making
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> encouraging independent learning
Management of controversial issues	
Person-related	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> awareness of own viewpoint
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> sensitivity to viewpoints of children in the classroom
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> sensitivity to differing experiences (social and cultural) of children
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> awareness of viewpoint in different sources of information
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> critical use of textbooks and other learning materials
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> awareness of rights of others and the need to promote respect for those rights
Task-related	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> offering opportunities for children to detect partiality and viewpoint
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> encouraging children to acknowledge others' viewpoints and to defend or modify their own in the light of new evidence
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> promoting an awareness in children that many areas have the potential for controversy and that there are many perspectives to any one issue
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> promoting an understanding that justice, equality and human rights are basic tenets of a democratic society and central to many controversies
Application of subject knowledge	
Person-related	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> knowledge of subject and understanding of the nature of enquiries in that subject
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> applying own subject knowledge to the themes of citizenship, environment and economics; understanding of cross-curricular potential within these themes
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> sensitivity to the need to raise awareness of global issues in all subjects
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> understanding that possibilities to incorporate a global dimension can be found in all subjects
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> provision of a wide range of teaching/learning materials which reflect this
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> design of own relevant materials which develop children's subject knowledge and understanding of global citizenship
Task-related	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> managing enquiries by children into these themes using approaches from the different subject disciplines
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> drawing personal responses from children related to such enquiries

Fig. 27 Competences required of the global teacher (Clough and Holden 1996)

Young and Commins' Traits for the educator aspiring to be a Global Citizen
In addition to having a sense of humour and fun, a Global Citizen is an educator who:
• has an understanding of and respect for diversity
• has an understanding of and active commitment to social justice and equity
• has a sense of identity and self-esteem and promotes these feelings in others
• feels empathy with others
• has an understanding of and active commitment to sustainable development
• has an understanding of peace and conflict and has the ability and willingness to behave cooperatively and resolve conflict
• has the ability to think critically, challenge injustice and argue effectively
• has an understanding of globalisation and interdependence and an active commitment to learning more about such issues
• has a belief that people can make a difference

Fig. 28 Traits for the educator aspiring to be a Global Citizen (Young and Commins 2002)

While it seems there is growing acceptance that the world view represented in these examples is essential not only for successful international teachers but for all teachers, it is apparent that the practice still lags far behind the ideology. A UK Department for International Development research project, 'Global Citizenship: The Needs of Teachers and Learners' (2004) highlighted several significant findings relevant to establishing such a world view, and while it reports only on the situation in UK schools, its findings reflect the anecdotal evidence from the international schools' sector:

- Teachers' definitions of education for global citizenship are extremely varied, ranging from a broad focus on global issues to a specific focus on personal and social development.
- Teachers see benefits in teaching global citizenship as an integrated part of other subject areas as well as a subject in its own right
- Students show very high interest in learning more about significant issues such as wealth and poverty differentials, human rights, health, child labour and, specifically, details of and reasons for contemporary wars – teachers are very aware of this keen interest
- Students also show a sophisticated level of appreciation of the concept of citizenship, both local and global, as well as associated ideas such as stereotyping, racism and discrimination – they are also aware of teachers' hesitancy in addressing controversial and potentially disturbing issues, but overwhelmingly express the desire to have such issues included as part of the core curriculum.

So, given the clear need identified by both teachers and students, and the range of research supporting this as an educational imperative, why are teachers with a world view – internationally-minded teachers - still so hard to find? The same DfID report identified two main obstacles:

- Prescribed curriculum - an overwhelming emphasis on literacy and numeracy, and specific 'inflexible' schemes of work gave no room for the inclusion of global perspectives, and no time for in-depth discussions and questions

- Lack of appropriately trained teachers – many teachers expressed concern both at their lack of knowledge of the issues to be addressed, and lack of skills in how to address them.

Traits of effective *international* teachers

While the lists of Shulman, Hamachek, Merryfield, Clough and Holden that focus respectively on types of knowledge, behavioural traits, characteristics of a world view and global teacher competences, are individually valuable, I found each to be too limited or specific in perspective to provide an adequate description of international teachers for the international schools context, and I therefore found it necessary to synthesise the three, drawing also from other literature, to produce a comprehensive list of knowledge, skills and characteristics. The resulting list of fifteen traits, which is described in some detail below, was then used as a working profile, tested through surveys with teachers, administrators, parents, students and teacher trainers in international schools. The survey data was then used to further synthesise the knowledge, skills and characteristics into the seven proposed domains of internationalism that are the central tenet of this thesis.

Trait 1 Differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles

In keeping with Darling-Hammond's and Hamachek's emphasis on the value of teacher flexibility, creativity and adaptability, and Shulman's inclusion of both general pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of learners and their characteristics, international teachers must have a wide range of techniques at hand to effectively address the student diversity typically found in international school classrooms. Such flexibility must extend to variety of languages; diverse background educational experiences; differing levels of conceptual development; and cultural and gender differences both in learning style and behaviour. Darling-Hammond's work focused on teachers within the US, where undoubtedly most classrooms and schools are diverse, yet such diversity is likely to be greatly magnified in a typical international school, where classrooms may have 15 different nationalities and languages in a class of 20 students; where the previous formal educational experience of students of the same chronological age might range from none to 5 or 6 years; and where parental diversity is likely to include international 'first-timers', global nomads and locals, each group having different perspectives and expectations of the school.

Trait 2 Equal opportunities awareness

Concern for social justice and equality, and an awareness of stereotyping of all types are central themes of Clough and Holden's competences. The real challenge for international teachers is not only to be aware of such themes and to have at least a basic understanding of the cultural, linguistic, gender and other differences they will encounter, but also to ensure that, despite the diversity, each student has equal access to successful learning opportunities. This will require teachers to be aware of parental expectations and aspirations, and may also involve counterbalancing limitations these might place on the student. For example, a student from a very traditional style of schooling will need additional help to adjust to an inquiry-based approach; if parents do not understand or value such an approach, teachers will need to support them in order to optimise the student's opportunities.

Trait 3 Gender sensitivity

Again highlighted by Clough and Holden, gender issues, often in combination with cultural differences, can create difficulties for international teachers. Radically different parental expectations for girls and boys, both for learning and behaviour, are still very common in many cultures. Not only do teachers have to deal with their own frustrations at what might seem very unfair and unrealistic expectations – which may be too high or too low – but they must also support their students through the challenges such expectations might create, while still maintaining a good relationship with the parents. Rigidly defined parental roles and different levels of respect for male and female teachers can be further sources of gender-based frustration for which international teachers need to be prepared.

Trait 4 Cultural sensitivity

The need for international teachers to show cultural sensitivity goes far beyond dealing with students in the classroom. Dealing also with parents, colleagues, the local community and the host country in general, all require sensitivity to the myriad of cultural differences to which the international teacher is typically exposed. While Merryfield refers to this only very generally, recommending cross-cultural experiences as part of teacher preparation, Clough and Holden again more specifically emphasise the need for awareness of cultural-stereotyping and for teachers to address the challenges facing children from ethnic minority backgrounds. Indeed in a new and unfamiliar setting this need permeates every aspect of the teacher's life, not only their school experience, and the degree of ease or difficulty experienced by each individual depends on a wide range of factors. Pollock, for example, uses his model of relational patterns in internationally mobile people (1999) to explain how physical appearance can play a part. He suggests that the more physically different the teacher looks from the people in the local community, the less friction (or what Allan, 2002, calls cultural dissonance) there is likely to be, as someone who looks obviously foreign will be expected to think and act differently. Conversely, he suggests, when physical appearance is similar (the hidden foreigner), the expectations are higher and therefore so is the likelihood of friction or cultural faux pas. While the model undoubtedly has merit at a theoretical level, it presupposes that the local community is positively predisposed to foreigners, which in practice clearly will not always be the case. Whatever the individual situation, it seems fair to conclude that cultural sensitivity is an essential area of preparation for international teachers.

Trait 5 Transition sensitivity

In her observations on the mobile population of international schools, Langford (1999) comments that 'One of the major concerns of international schools is the possible negative effects that serial uprooting can have on their students.' Dealing with high levels of transition amongst students, parents and also colleagues, requires teachers to have greater awareness and a bank of techniques and strategies – welcoming and farewell rituals, social and academic settling-in, as well as support for parents through information and involvement, can mean the difference between success or failure for a student. Pollock's extensive interviews of mobile students (1999) reveal that such a lifestyle can generate a wide range of reactions, from being more open, gregarious and quick to establish in-depth relationships, to being introvert, cautious, cynical and treating relationships only as transient and superficial. The intensely unsettling nature of so-called 'culture shock' (more aptly named transition stress by Powell, 2001, and others) can be debilitating and international teachers need to be prepared not only to help their students but also, perhaps as a pre-requisite, to help themselves.

Trait 6 Adaptable classroom management style

‘Classroom management is one of the most important challenges teachers face.’ (Arends 2007) In an international setting, with a diverse student body, a teacher’s classroom management style needs to take into account all the previously listed sensitivities: to transition, differentiation, equal opportunities, linguistic, cultural and gender differences. A teacher’s style may be deemed to be too strict by some, too lenient by others, too structured or too relaxed. Parental expectations about their own involvement, communication, homework etc. will also all differ, and it would be reasonable to ask how one teacher’s style can be effective for such a wide range of needs and expectations. Kounin (1970, cited in Arends 2007) identified several variables - with-itness, overlappingness, smoothness, momentum, group alerting, accountability, challenge arousal and variety - that determine the effectiveness of a teacher’s classroom management. The challenge for international teachers is to develop a repertoire of techniques that address such variables within the context of a dynamic cultural mix.

Trait 7 Efficient student assessment

Many international schools have highly transient student populations (the average length of student stay for some schools is less than two years) and the cumulative effects of transitory education can be negative. A recent personal comment from a family who has moved several times during the past 5 years emphasised this: the mother commented that, although the children had been very happy in their various schools, she felt that academically there was a lack of urgency and sense of purpose from the teachers given that they knew the child would only be there for a short time. Such comments are typical of the frustrations families feel even with the best schools. Effective international teachers must therefore move quickly to get students working at an appropriate level - to initially assess where the student is academically and to diagnose problems or concerns.

Trait 8 Information & communication technology proficiency

‘Being able to access and to interact with information and information systems across the globe at the touch of a button...’ (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 1996) is more important in international settings for both pragmatic and ideological reasons: access to teaching resources may be limited, and teachers may need to rely more heavily on internet resources (of course internet access may not be available either, again for pragmatic and / or ideological reasons.); when teaching students from all over the world, what better resource than access to other students all over the world – email exchanges with other schools can add both interest, firsthand information and multiple perspectives to a unit of study. IT familiarity is also often a key factor in teachers’ own personal and professional lives, both for social communication and for professional development opportunities that may otherwise not be available.

Trait 9 Pedagogical understanding (how students learn)

Traditionally education, and therefore teacher preparation, especially at secondary school level, has emphasised the importance of curriculum content (*what* we teach and *what* students learn) over pedagogical understanding (*how* we teach and *how* students learn). This is no longer an appropriate balance in international schools, where, rather than being fixed, content is tailored to the local context, and where widely diverse student populations require the international teacher to be familiar with student learning characteristics, theories of development and age-level expectations. Differentiated teaching, currently encouraged in many national education systems, must be a fundamental *modus operandi* for international teachers.

Trait 10 Subject knowledge with a world view

Many international schools state as part of their mission that they aim to develop 'internationally-minded students', 'global awareness', 'active world citizenship' etc., and for international teachers therefore, there is a key responsibility to help students develop a world view. This requires that teacher's own knowledge across a range of subject areas has such a view - not only knowledge *about* other parts of the world, but an understanding of how different subjects are looked at in other parts of the world.

'The international teacher must move beyond national knowledge and boundaries to take into account both local and global issues and perspectives, cultural and linguistic diversity, and the overall concept of global citizenship.' (Snowball 2005)

Trait 11 Language acquisition and development

'Of the 162 countries or territories in UNESCO's World Culture Report 2000 (UNESCO 2000)...only 7 (4%) are listed as having only a single language in daily use – for the majority of the world, multilingualism is a practical daily reality.' In a multilingual classroom, where students, individually and as a group, speak more than one language, teachers may be responsible for students with whom they do not share a common language (Snowball 2008). International teachers must, above all, value the multilingual abilities of their students, seeing such abilities as an asset in an increasingly multilingual world, and appreciating the fundamental impact of language on cognition, self-esteem, cultural identity and general personal development. To do this they must understand the processes involved in language acquisition; be aware of the importance of continued mother-tongue development; appreciate the problems of students with no well-established first language and of literacy development in different languages. They must be able to simultaneously support second- and third-language learners, as well as appropriately challenging articulate first-language speakers.

Trait 12 Open to new ideas and multiple perspectives

That international teachers need to be open to new ideas and multiple perspectives would seem to be an obvious pre-requisite, and as shown earlier in survey results, a sense of adventure and a desire to travel were common underlying factors affecting teachers' decisions to work internationally. Happily, most international teachers match the common perception and use their international experiences to expand their horizons and enrich their understanding of the world, its places and its people. Unfortunately most of us however will also be able to bring to mind examples of those for whom this is not the case: those who travel with closed minds; those who seek to replicate their home country or town in each new location; and those who seek not to learn from new perspectives but to impose their own perspective on others. While such closed mindsets may be ingrained in some individuals, in others they may be a temporary reaction to transition or relocation stress, often called culture shock. Preparation for the differences that can be expected can help international teachers optimise their effectiveness.

Trait 13 Independence

As Joslin (2002) points out, there are rarely support systems for teachers before they enter the international context, and limited support systems once they are in it. While many schools have orientation programmes and some have designated people responsible for helping new staff to settle-in, such support is usually limited, and the international teacher is often on their own, with sole responsibility for their social, emotional, professional, economic, and even legal, well-being. Independence and self-sufficiency are therefore invaluable traits. Interestingly, in his work on transition, Powell (2001, citing Costa and Garmston 1994) notes that one of the main causes of

transition or relocation stress is a loss of efficacy, when teachers can no longer be their usual independent selves due to unfamiliarity with local systems and environments.

'Efficacy is the belief that the individual can cope with the present and influence and effect desired change in the future. It is the belief that 'I' can make a difference, that my contribution is important, that in some meaningful way I can be the architect of my own future.

Efficacious people are problem solvers. They believe that their behaviour can influence outcomes. They see complex dilemmas as opportunities. They are optimistic and self-actualizing...

Relocation stress can reduce one's sense of efficacy and one's self-confidence. Normally this is a temporary situation and as we grow more familiar with our new surroundings (environmental and social) our previous 'can do' attitude returns.'

Trait 14 Calm and patient in dealing with different systems

In combination with the independence previously discussed, the ability to remain calm and patient in dealing with systems that may be or appear to be inefficient and ineffective, is an asset for the international teacher. Even the calmest person is likely to experience some frustration in dealing with new school systems (for example, how do supply requisitions, maintenance requests, parent evenings, student discipline problems work?); unfamiliar laws and regulations (for example, how are work permits, visas, driving licences issued, bank accounts established, medical insurance organised?); and local personal and cultural behaviours (for example, the way people queue, drive, spit, shout). Pollock and van Reken (2001) acknowledge that in a state of transition, calmness and patience are traits that are often temporarily lost, as the transient person moves from a state of involvement where they feel settled and comfortable, through the detachment of the leaving stage, the chaos of the transition stage, and the unfamiliarity of the entering stage, usually to be regained again at the final stage of reinvolved. International teachers will be better prepared if they understand the normality and temporary nature of such changes.

Trait 15 Financial astuteness

This may seem superficial in relation to the other traits considered, but linked to the need for independence, international teachers will need to understand a new salary and tax system, and be able to compare different systems and packages before even accepting a job. Once in the international setting they will need to manage money in a completely new environment, often with residual commitments back home; be familiar with pension and health insurance implications; balance local versus imported expatriate goods; and develop a local sense of value for money. For example, when my husband and I lived in Hungary we were paid in cash, foreigners could not hold bank accounts and there was no credit card system – this took a while to adjust to but, in our next school, we felt somehow cheated when on payday we received only a salary printout rather than a handful of bank notes.

Survey data relating to Traits of Effective Teachers

The tables in figures 29 -33 relate directly to these fifteen traits, showing the responses of 440 respondents who were asked to nominate the three most important traits from the list of fifteen. The group consisted of teachers, administrators, parents and students in

international schools (more detailed demographic data for the respondents is given in the tables in Chapter 3). In each table the top three choices (or four where there is a tie) are highlighted. Percentages shown are calculated on the basis of three possible responses per respondent (1320 in total).

Survey 002															
Traits of an Effective Teacher															
T1 Traits by total respondents															
Trait	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11	T12	T13	T14	T15
Selections	203	63	14	82	5	134	52	26	202	120	35	265	15	83	3
%	46.1%	14.3%	3.2%	18.6%	1.1%	30.5%	11.8%	5.9%	45.9%	27.3%	8.0%	60.2%	3.4%	18.9%	0.7%

Fig. 29 Traits of an effective teacher T1

As can be seen in Figure 29, there was a clear pattern, with *differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles (Trait 1)*, *pedagogical understanding (Trait 9)* and *open to new ideas and multiple perspectives (Trait 12)* identified as the most important traits, and gaining more votes than the other 12 traits combined. In looking at which were chosen least and therefore deemed to be of less importance, financial astuteness and transition sensitivity were rated lowest overall. The subsequent tables display the results of specific groups of respondents, allowing comparison with those of the overall group.

Survey 002																
Traits of an Effective Teacher																
T2 Traits by role																
Role	# of respondents in category	Trait 1	Trait 2	Trait 3	Trait 4	Trait 5	Trait 6	Trait 7	Trait 8	Trait 9	Trait 10	Trait 11	Trait 12	Trait 13	Trait 14	Trait 15
		differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles	equal opportunities awareness	gender sensitivity	cultural sensitivity	transition sensitivity	adaptable classroom management style	efficient student assessment	ICT proficient	pedagogical understanding (how students learn)	subject knowledge with a world view	language acquisition & development	open to know ideas & multiple perspectives	independent	calm & patient in dealing with different systems	financially astute
Teacher %	264	132 50.0%	24 9.1%	3 1.1%	46 17.4%	5 1.9%	104 39.4%	25 9.5%	8 3.0%	136 51.5%	67 25.4%	16 6.1%	166 62.9%	9 3.4%	45 17.0%	3 1.1%
Admin %	38	30 78.9%	1 2.6%	0 0.0%	8 21.1%	0 0.0%	13 34.2%	7 18.4%	0 0.0%	20 52.6%	8 21.1%	2 5.3%	22 57.9%	0 0.0%	3 7.9%	0 0.0%
Teacher trainer %	46	15 32.6%	11 23.9%	3 6.5%	28 60.9%	0 0.0%	6 13.0%	3 6.5%	4 8.7%	14 30.4%	6 13.0%	14 30.4%	26 56.5%	2 4.3%	3 6.5%	0 0.0%
Parent %	18	9 50.0%	2 11.1%	4 22.2%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 5.6%	4 22.2%	6 33.3%	8 44.4%	8 44.4%	0 0.0%	9 50.0%	0 0.0%	3 16.7%	0 0.0%
Student %	74	17 23.0%	25 33.8%	4 5.4%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	10 13.5%	13 17.6%	8 10.8%	24 32.4%	31 41.9%	3 4.1%	42 56.8%	4 5.4%	29 39.2%	0 0.0%

Fig. 30 Traits of an effective teacher T2

Survey 002																
Traits of an Effective Teacher																
T3 Traits by years of teaching																
Years of teaching	# of Teachers in category	Trait 1	Trait 2	Trait 3	Trait 4	Trait 5	Trait 6	Trait 7	Trait 8	Trait 9	Trait 10	Trait 11	Trait 12	Trait 13	Trait 14	Trait 15
		differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles	equal opportunities awareness	gender sensitivity	cultural sensitivity	transition sensitivity	adaptable classroom management style	efficient student assessment	ICT proficient	pedagogical understanding (how students learn)	subject knowledge with a world view	language acquisition & development	open to new ideas & multiple perspectives	independent	calm & patient in dealing with different systems	financially astute
<6 years %	79	37 46.8%	17 21.5%	1 1.3%	29 36.7%	1 1.3%	18 22.8%	7 8.9%	8 10.1%	33 41.8%	19 24.1%	8 10.1%	46 58.2%	2 2.5%	10 12.7%	0 0.0%
6-10 years %	67	34 50.7%	5 7.5%	0 0.0%	15 22.4%	1 1.5%	33 49.3%	5 7.5%	1 1.5%	28 41.8%	10 14.9%	7 10.4%	47 70.1%	2 3.0%	12 17.9%	0 0.0%
11-15 years %	60	30 50.0%	5 8.3%	3 5.0%	6 10.0%	1 1.7%	20 33.3%	6 10.0%	1 1.7%	34 56.7%	17 28.3%	6 10.0%	37 61.7%	2 3.3%	8 13.3%	1 1.7%
16-20 years %	59	28 47.5%	3 5.1%	1 1.7%	16 27.1%	0 0.0%	18 30.5%	6 10.2%	1 1.7%	27 45.8%	15 25.4%	7 11.9%	40 67.8%	2 3.4%	10 16.9%	2 3.4%
21-25 years %	31	16 51.6%	2 6.5%	1 3.2%	4 12.9%	1 3.2%	15 48.4%	5 16.1%	0 0.0%	15 48.4%	8 25.8%	2 6.5%	17 54.8%	2 6.5%	5 16.1%	0 0.0%
26-30 years %	29	19 65.5%	2 6.9%	0 0.0%	6 20.7%	1 3.4%	14 48.3%	4 13.8%	1 3.4%	18 62.1%	5 17.2%	1 3.4%	14 48.3%	0 0.0%	2 6.9%	0 0.0%
>30 years %	23	13 56.5%	2 8.7%	0 0.0%	6 26.1%	0 0.0%	5 21.7%	2 8.7%	0 0.0%	15 65.2%	7 30.4%	1 4.3%	13 56.5%	1 4.3%	4 17.4%	0 0.0%

Fig. 31 Traits of an effective teacher T3

Survey 002																		
Traits of an Effective Teacher																		
T5 Traits by current school type																		
		Trait ID	Trait 1	Trait 2	Trait 3	Trait 4	Trait 5	Trait 6	Trait 7	Trait 8	Trait 9	Trait 10	Trait 11	Trait 12	Trait 13	Trait 14	Trait 15	
Current school type	# of teachers in category	differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles	equal opportunities awareness	gender sensitivity	cultural sensitivity	transition sensitivity	adaptable classroom management style	efficient student assessment	ICT proficient	pedagogical understanding (how students learn)	subject knowledge with a world view	language acquisition & development	open to new ideas & multiple perspectives	independent	calm & patient in dealing with different systems	financially astute		
		SSHCHome %	61	2439.3%	1118.0%	34.9%	3049.2%	00.0%	1118.0%	46.6%	46.6%	2032.8%	1423.0%	1423.0%	3557.4%	34.9%	69.8%	00.0%
		IndSHCHome %	6	466.7%	00.0%	00.0%	00.0%	350.0%	350.0%	116.7%	233.3%	116.7%	00.0%	350.0%	116.7%	00.0%	00.0%	
		IntSHCHome %	114	4337.7%	1513.2%	00.0%	1513.2%	21.8%	4640.4%	1714.9%	21.8%	6557.0%	2824.6%	65.3%	7969.3%	21.8%	1916.7%	21.8%
		Home total %	181	7139.2%	2614.4%	31.7%	4524.9%	21.1%	6033.1%	2413.3%	73.9%	8748.1%	4323.8%	2011.0%	11764.6%	63.3%	2513.8%	21.1%
overseas	IntSOC %	150	9764.7%	85.3%	21.3%	3523.3%	10.7%	5738.0%	106.7%	42.7%	7550.0%	3322.0%	106.7%	9060.0%	42.7%	2416.0%	00.0%	
	NSOC %	13	646.2%	215.4%	17.7%	215.4%	17.7%	430.8%	17.7%	17.7%	646.2%	323.1%	17.7%	646.2%	17.7%	215.4%	17.7%	
	Other total %	163	10363.2%	106.1%	31.8%	3722.7%	21.2%	6137.4%	116.7%	53.1%	8149.7%	3622.1%	116.7%	9658.9%	53.1%	2616.0%	0.6%	

Fig. 33 Traits of an effective teacher T5

Figure 30 shows the results categorised by role, with teachers' top three choices exactly matching those of the overall group (unsurprising as teachers were by far the predominant group of respondents). Teachers were the only group to choose all fifteen traits. Teachers' lowest choices were financial astuteness and gender sensitivity, presumably indicating that they themselves did not have financial concerns, or perceive themselves to be gender biased. An interesting aside to this is that as part of a subsequent and unrelated consultancy visit to one school whose teachers completed the survey, I was asked by the head to observe the balance of teachers' attention to both genders in class, and found that almost all teachers gave more attention to the boys. Further investigation revealed that this was not necessarily because of any inherent favouritism on the part of the teachers, but primarily because the girls were generally perceived as more able to achieve independently, while the boys' louder and more active behaviour demanded constant attention.

School administrators chose the same top three as teachers, but indicated slightly different priorities, with *differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles* deemed the most important. Five traits were not chosen at all by administrators: *gender sensitivity (Trait 3)*, *transition sensitivity (Trait 5)*, *ICT proficient (Trait 8)*, *independent (Trait 13)* and *financial astuteness (Trait 15)*.

The third category, teacher trainers, chose *cultural sensitivity (Trait 4)* as most important, a trait that overall was deemed relatively unimportant, especially by parents and students, who did not choose it at all. The second and third choices of the teacher trainers followed the overall pattern. Their lowest choices also followed the overall pattern.

The choices of the fourth group, parents, also followed the overall pattern but the numbers of respondents choosing each trait were much more evenly spread, and included *subject knowledge with a world view (Trait 10)*, a trait also chosen by students as one of the three most important. Of the five traits that were not chosen at all by parents, two were very surprising, given the multicultural, multilingual nature of their communities: *cultural sensitivity (Trait 4)* and *language acquisition and development (Trait 11)*. It might be taken as a positive indication that teachers show these sensitivities as a matter of course.

While students' first choice followed the overall pattern, their second and third choices did not: *subject knowledge with a world view (Trait 10)* and *calm and patient in dealing with different systems (Trait 14)* which was rated as of relatively low importance by all other groups. It might be concluded that students perceived calmness and patience as traits that they would directly benefit from in the classroom. Their lowest choices showed similarities to both the overall pattern and the choices of the parents with *financial astuteness (Trait 15)*, *transition sensitivity (Trait 5)* and *cultural sensitivity (Trait 4)* not being chosen by any respondent.

Figures 31, 32 and 33 use only the results from the educational professionals, the first three categories, excluding parents and students. Figure 31 shows the results by years of teaching experience. Again distinct patterns emerged, with *differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles (Trait 1)*, *pedagogical understanding (Trait 9)* and *open to new ideas and multiple perspectives (Trait 12)* consistently chosen as the most important, and *gender sensitivity (Trait 3)*, *transition sensitivity (trait 5)* and *financial astuteness (Trait 15)* consistently not chosen or chosen by only one person. *ICT proficient (Trait 8)*

was also one of the least chosen, except by the least experienced group of teachers, who rated it in the middle of the list. The reasons for this would be interesting to follow up, and it is interesting to speculate whether this relates to a heavier emphasis placed on ICT in more recent teacher preparation programmes.

Figure 32 shows results by years of overseas teaching, with very similar patterns to Figure 31 in both highest and lowest rated traits. Again *ICT proficient (Trait 8)* was rated higher by those with less experience than those with more experience.

Figure 33 shows results by the current school type in which the respondents were teaching, categorised into home country and overseas, and then sub-categorised into state school in home country (SSHC), independent school in home country (IndSHC), international school in home country (IntSHC), international school in overseas country (IntSOC) and national school in overseas country (NSOC). While there was no difference in the highest and lowest choices overall between the home country and the overseas groups, they did indicate different priorities within the top three, with the home country group choosing *open to new ideas and multiple perspectives (Trait 12)* as most important and the overseas group choosing *differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles (Trait 1)*. Within the overseas group the main difference between those teaching in international schools and those teaching in national schools was a more even spread of choices in the latter. Within the home country group, all three subgroups agreed that *open to new ideas and multiple perspectives (Trait 12)* was one of the most important, but while state school teachers rated *cultural sensitivity (Trait 4)* highly, international school teachers chose *adaptable classroom management style (Trait 6)* as more important. While interesting to note, such variations are minor, compared to the similarities amongst the groups.

Overall then we can conclude that *differentiated teaching for diverse classrooms*, *pedagogical understanding* and *open to new ideas and multiple perspectives* are clearly deemed the most important traits for international teachers with *adaptable classroom management style*, *subject knowledge with a world view* and *cultural sensitivity* also rated highly by a high proportion of respondents. However, all traits engendered some support and in Chapter 5, therefore, all are synthesised into the seven domains of knowledge and skills identified as essential for international teacher preparation, and further suggested as being valuable for all teachers.

What training do international teachers need?

In the first part of this chapter I identified and described a wide range of traits that are important for effective international teachers. In the next section I will demonstrate that there is a significant mismatch between the importance teachers attach to such knowledge and skills and the actual preparation they receive. I will then investigate the extent to which such knowledge and skills are evident in pre-service and post-graduate programmes in those countries supplying most teachers to the international sector, and, although the general picture revealed is somewhat discouraging, I will describe encouraging examples from each of those countries.

The mismatch between the needs of teachers and the preparation they receive

As indicated in previous chapters, the number of international schools is predicted to increase dramatically in the next decade, with a corresponding increase in the demand for international teachers. Similarly, as urban communities worldwide become increasingly diverse, the need for appropriately-skilled teachers becomes more urgent.

A UNESCO study (Gagliardi 1995) carried out in Bolivia, the Czech Republic, Jordan, Lebanon, Mauritius, Poland, Senegal and Tunisia, examined the attitudes and practices of teachers working in multicultural settings, and investigated how well teacher education prepared them for their local multicultural contexts. The countries studied represented diverse geographical locations and a range of different levels of development, yet in each case the same overall conclusion was reached: neither pre-service nor postgraduate teacher education adequately prepared teachers for the multicultural contexts in which they were teaching. Many common issues contributed to this overall conclusion and analysis of these led to the project's proposal of a model of teacher education that should include the following:

- comprehensive and systematic policy reforms rather than isolated initiatives
- the skills to adapt mono-cultural curricula and resources to reflect a range of perspectives
- awareness of the difficulties cultural and linguistic differences can cause in the classroom
- awareness of the positive opportunities afforded by cultural and linguistic diversity
- the skills to adapt homogeneous educational objectives to meet heterogeneous student needs
- the skills to counter negative ethnocentric attitudes and address contentious issues such as racism and xenophobia
- a model of learning as a complex and dynamic set of conceptual processes rather than only as the acquisition of new information
- understanding how cultural beliefs and values influence how information is received and interpreted
- appreciation of diverse student learning styles and characteristics and the skills to adapt for individual differences
- awareness of student learning difficulties and misconceptions
- the skills to communicate effectively with students from cultures different from their own
- understanding how students' individual or traditional cultural strengths can help them learn more effectively
- knowledge, skills and understanding to deal with the complexities of students' language issues
- willingness to connect with families and communities and ability to empathise regarding local health, social and economic issues

Shown by the project to be applicable across such a diverse range of contexts, each of these aspects of teacher education is also of central importance for teachers in international schools, and, as such, each is explicitly addressed in the model proposed by this thesis.

Gagliardi's overall conclusion that teacher training needs to be reorganized in order to improve the capacity of teachers to teach in multicultural contexts, mirrors recent findings elsewhere in the world. Ben-Perez (2000) observes, for example, that however

intensively changes in teaching are sought, they can be only limited in scope and viability without accompanying changes in teacher education programmes, while Joslin (2002) uses her own personal experience to illustrate how inadequately prepared most international teachers are: 'Had I been better informed about the field of education in an international context and 'international schools' in general, it would, I believe, have been advantageous to the organizations I joined and would also have enhanced my own career.' Although Joslin suggests that the situation now is better than when she embarked on her own international career in 1980, with several post-graduate courses available and technological advances making access to information much easier, I would argue that the situation in practical terms has hardly changed – the majority of teachers teaching in an international context for the first time have little idea of what it is all about. Any quick review of international schools' mission statements reveals a large degree of homogeneity, with most referring to valuing international mindedness, developing global citizens, educating for international understanding, and so on: yet schools have little hope of fulfilling such missions while the teachers they hire have little real understanding of the international context. As the survey data presented in this chapter will indicate, even experienced international teachers lack comprehensive preparation for the types of issues and challenges that face them in international schools.

Comprehensive statistics for international contexts are hard to find, but national data on language preparation can give us some indication of the scale of the problem. In the USA, for example, less than one in five teachers who teach English Language Learners are certified to do so (Education Commission of the States 2005). Anecdotal evidence from agencies recruiting international teachers indicates a similar situation for teachers from the UK and Australia. In this respect, Canada is somewhat different, as the bilingual focus of the east coast provinces produces greater numbers of teachers who are not only fluent in both French and English, but who also seem comfortable with bilingualism as a way of life.

So how do we bridge the gap between preparation and actual practice for international teachers? Pantazi (2006) describes how teachers' own experiences as students in linguistically homogeneous classrooms (in Greece) influence their assumptions and beliefs about the nature of multilingualism, often creating significant philosophical conflict when they become teachers in linguistically heterogeneous classrooms (for example, in London). In doing so, she emphasises the importance of two of the elements identified in Chapter 5: multilingualism (Domain IV), and reflection (Domain VII), supporting my contention that all new teachers need preparation for teaching students who speak more than one language. Equally, or perhaps more, important, she argues, is the need for teachers to be taught the skills of reflection, for example, through case-studies and problem-solving exercises that help them develop deeper understandings of the issues involved, as well as greater self-awareness and the ability to question their own assumptions.

Studies such as those outlined above, conducted in highly multicultural national systems, underline the secondary argument of this thesis that elements of internationalism should be embedded in all teacher education.

Survey data relating to Aspects of Training

Figures 34-39 present survey data from 284 international teachers, asked to rank the importance of 12 aspects of training relating to internationalism. Using a ranking scale of 1-4, respondents indicated whether they considered that aspect of training to be either

(1) Not at all important, (2) Quite Important, (3) Important or (4) Very Important. They were also asked to indicate whether they themselves had training in each aspect, and figure 40 shows this data mapped against the Importance rankings of the individual training aspects, and the training aspects assigned to the Domains identified in Chapter 5.

The table in figure 34 and the graph in figure 35 show the basic rankings indicated by all respondents for each aspect of training, while figures 36 and 37 show combined (2), (3) and (4) rankings for the individual training aspects, i.e. all rankings indicating any level of importance. Both in the basic rankings and the combined rankings, 'intercultural understanding' and 'multicultural classroom' were ranked as most important: 96% and 97% in the combined rankings, indicating a very strong agreement that preparation for dealing with cultural issues is an important element of teacher education. In fact, as the combined rankings indicate, each of the twelve training aspects was rated as having some degree of importance by more than 80% of respondents. 'World arts' (87%) was ranked as somewhat less important than 'world history' (93.7%), 'world geography' (92.6%) or 'world current affairs' (93%). Although the difference is not statistically significant, it is interesting to note in terms of internationalising curriculum. This ranking could of course indicate that more people already feel more knowledgeable about world arts than they do about the other subject areas and so do not feel that specific training is important. Similarly, the relatively low ranking for 'teachers in transition' (83.5%) could be because this group of respondents was less geographically mobile and therefore not personally affected by transition issues.

As the survey data were analysed, it became apparent that there was considerable overlap amongst the different training aspects investigated and the concept of a set of training domains emerged, each including several aspects of training grouped under a bigger, conceptual heading aligned with the issues identified in Chapter 2. While it may not be feasible to have every teacher fully trained in every individual aspect identified, each of the domains is deemed to be an essential area of training. On this basis the domains were used as the fundamental structure for the rest of the thesis and are explained in detail in Chapter 5:

Domain I: International education in context

Domain II: Student characteristics and learning

Domain III: Multiculturalism

Domain IV: Multilingualism

Domain V: Transition

Domain VI: Internationalising curriculum

Domain VII: the Reflective teacher

Each training aspect from the survey was allocated to one or more domains, and while this allocation was informal and used only the most obvious links, it serves as a useful indicator of the relative importance afforded each domain. Figures 38 and 39 show the training aspects grouped into the seven domains. Domain III: Multiculturalism shows the highest ranking (96.7%), followed by Domain VII: the Reflective teacher (94.7%), Domain II: Student characteristics and learning (93.4%), Domain I: International education in context (92.6%), Domain VI: Internationalising curriculum (91.5%), Domain V: Transition (88%) and finally, Domain IV: Multilingualism (86.4%). With every domain regarded as having some degree of importance by at least 86% of respondents, it is clear that these domains represent significant aspects of training for international teachers.

Figures 40 - 43 show the actual training received by respondents, both for the individual training aspects and for domain groupings. Language training is the most commonly cited aspect, both in relation to multilingual classrooms and personal language study, yet is still only indicated by around 20% of respondents. Most commonly listed types of training included TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) and TESOL (Teaching English as a Second or Other Language) courses taken as ongoing professional development subsequent to the main teacher preparation programmes. Other language training listed included optional second language learning modules within initial teacher education courses and short sessions incorporated into school orientation programmes. This data correlates with the findings described later in this chapter, showing that training on language teaching is the most widely available within teacher education systems. The data suggests, however, that little of the training cited seemed to include more generic training on comparative languages, an aspect that this thesis claims is essential for international teachers needing an understanding of the fundamental nature of multilingualism.

Training for teaching in multicultural classrooms was also cited by around 20% of respondents, again mainly through a variety of optional modules within initial teacher education courses and short sessions in school orientation programmes. Training in intercultural understanding, however, was cited by only 11.3% of respondents and further examination of the responses for this domain of multiculturalism suggests that much of the training focused on the practicalities of dealing with student diversity rather than specific aspects of culture. Again, while such practical aspects are important, it is my contention that training must also develop deeper understandings about the nature of culture.

Overall, only 10% of respondents had received any training on transition, either relating to students or to themselves. What they had received was almost entirely through school orientation programmes, although a very small number cited sessions on Global Nomads that were included in their teacher education courses. A similar percentage of respondents (10.9%) cited training in international education and those who did had received it mainly through school orientation programmes. A small number had comparative education modules included in their teacher education courses and some had received introductory sessions on international schools as part of their international recruitment process. These low percentages seem to contradict the suggestion made earlier in this chapter (Joslin 2002) that the situation regarding international teacher preparation has improved and given the indications that global mobility will continue to increase, the case is strong for transition and international education to be included as further essential aspects of preparation for international teachers.

The four aspects of training relating to internationalising curriculum were cited by only 6.3% of respondents (only 4.6% in the case of world current affairs). Even given my contention that international teachers are inadequately prepared, these figures are shockingly low, coming as they are from teachers who are teaching international students in international schools using international curricula. What was also noticeable was the lack of ongoing professional development cited, which, for other aspects, had compensated to some extent for the lack of training received within teacher education programmes. The reasons for this were not apparent but it might be speculated that the lack of availability of such training is a key factor, a theory that will be examined later in this chapter.

The chart in Figure 44 combines the data from the preceding tables, comparing the importance ratings attributed to each training aspect with the actual training received. While it might be expected that those aspects rated as more important would also be those aspects in which teachers have received training, the opposite is true. In fact, it might be the case that lack of training in a particular aspect highlighted a need and so influenced teachers to rate that aspect as more important. Whatever the cause and effect relationships, the mismatch is striking and the case for better preparation for international teachers is strengthened. It seems that international teachers clearly recognise several training aspects that are important to their effectiveness, as well as, in common with the literature, identifying a serious mismatch between those aspects they deem important and the actual training they have. These two points are central to this thesis, as well as to teacher education generally, and lead us to consider, in the final section of this chapter, what training is available.

Survey 003 Training ratings TRI All respondents																							
Ranking	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	
0 no response	27	9.5%	7	2.5%	10	3.5%	7	2.5%	7	2.5%	18	6.3%	13	4.6%	9	3.2%	5	1.8%	5	1.8%			
1 not at all important	23	8.1%	20	7.0%	11	3.9%	14	4.9%	4	1.4%	29	10.2%	24	8.5%	11	3.9%	13	4.6%	15	5.3%	10	3.5%	
2 quite important	102	35.9%	47	16.5%	57	20.1%	75	26.4%	20	7.0%	84	29.6%	90	31.7%	54	19.0%	75	26.4%	63	22.2%	64	22.5%	
3 important	86	30.3%	111	39.1%	133	46.8%	99	34.9%	86	30.3%	119	41.9%	100	35.2%	110	38.7%	126	44.4%	126	44.4%	101	35.6%	
4 very important	46	16.2%	99	34.9%	150	52.8%	73	25.7%	167	58.8%	34	12.0%	57	20.1%	100	35.2%	65	22.9%	74	26.1%	104	36.6%	
Training aspects	comparative languages	1	multilingual classroom	2	multicultural classroom	3	students in transition	4	introduction to international education	5	intercultural understanding	6	teachers in transition	7	world arts	8	world current affairs	9	world history	10	world geography	11	personal foreign language study

Fig. 34 Training ratings
All respondents table

Training ratings - All respondents

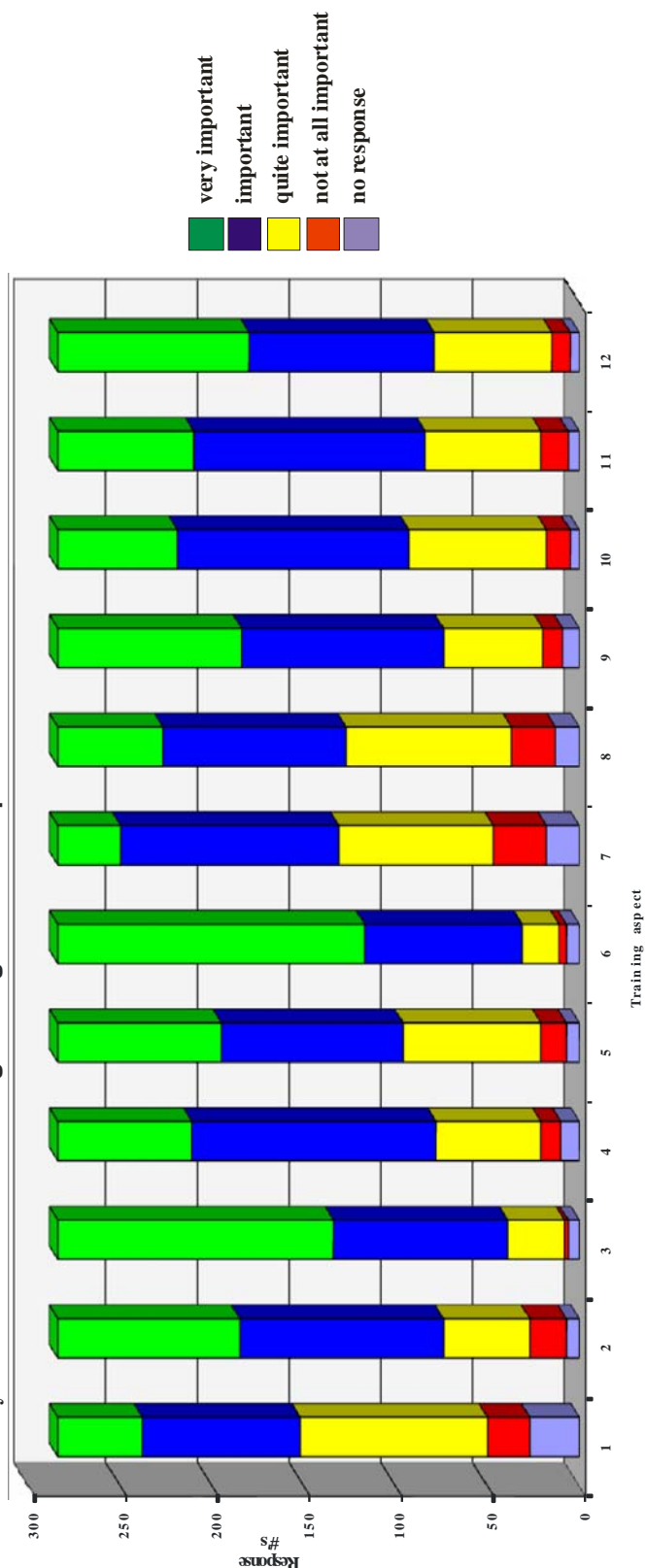


Fig. 35 Training ratings
All respondents chart

Survey 03														
Training ratings														
ATI - Actual training														
	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total
no training	247	87.0%	222	78.2%	228	80.3%	251	88.4%	253	89.1%	252	88.7%	260	91.5%
training	37	13.0%	62	21.8%	56	19.7%	33	11.6%	31	10.9%	32	11.3%	24	8.5%
university	27	9.5%	26	9.2%	26	9.2%	7	2.5%	6	2.1%	11	3.9%	3	1.1%
ongoing PD	11	3.9%	41	14.4%	37	13.0%	27	9.5%	26	9.2%	21	7.4%	21	7.4%
Training aspects	comparative languages	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
	multilingual classroom													
	multicultural classroom													
	students in transition													
	introduction to international education													
	intercultural understanding													

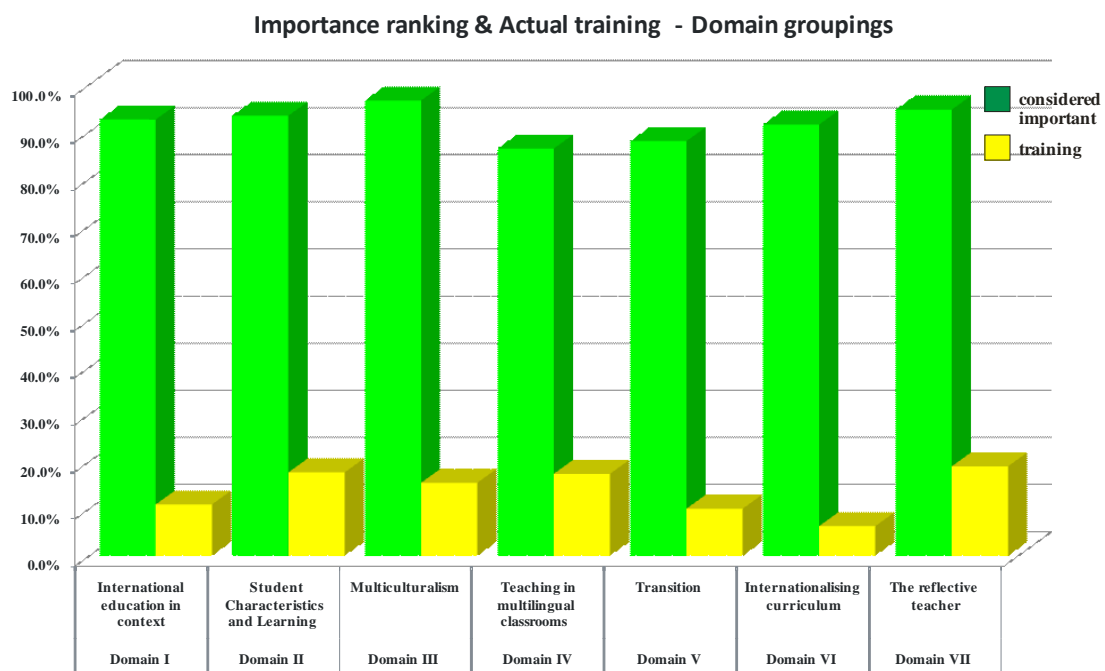


Fig. 44 Importance ranking and Actual Training – Domain groupings

How does existing training meet these needs?

Earlier in this chapter, survey data showed the nationalities of 164 teachers and administrators working in international schools outside their home country: 39.3% were British, 22.1% were American, 6.7% were Australian and 6.7% were Canadian. A further 9.3% listed mixed nationality and 70% of these also included one of the four predominating nationalities. Levy (2007 p213) suggests that ‘given the amount of globalization and mobility transforming the world, it is reasonable to expect a plethora of teacher preparation programmes for international settings’ and one could certainly expect that this might be true at least in those nations providing large numbers of international teachers. Yet review of the literature and extensive internet research into teacher preparation programmes available in these four countries, confirm the assumption that underlies this whole thesis: while there are examples of good practice, provision is sporadic, inconsistent and unsystematic, and whether a teacher receives internationally-orientated preparation depends completely on their own initiative and their choice of university. Given the contention of this thesis that such provision is an essential part of all teacher preparation, not only that of international teachers, this section provides a brief overview of internationalism in teacher education in each of the four countries and, from what is generally a very discouraging picture, describes a few encouraging examples of pre-service and post-graduate programmes. Ironically, these four countries are heavily involved in most major teacher education reform efforts worldwide, for example, China, India, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates, yet reform of their own internal teacher education systems continues to move painfully slowly.

As detailed in Chapter 3, the examples result from a systematic internet search conducted over several months, and each meets the following criteria:

- the general philosophy of the programme has an explicit international focus
- a significant proportion of the courses within the programme have an international focus

- a significant proportion of these courses are compulsory not just optional, i.e. an embedded part of the programme

England

In England, the movement for global citizenship through education, originally known as World Studies, can be traced back to at least the 1930s (Levy 2007) with an associated call for global perspectives to be included in teacher education. It was not until 1979, however, that this took on a practical aspect, with Oxfam's 'Third World Perspectives in Initial Teacher Training' project (Thomas, cited in Steiner 1996). This more practical emphasis on internationalising teacher education continued throughout the 1990s, illustrated by the many examples in Steiner's collection, *Developing the Global Teacher*. In 1990, citizenship also became an official part of the government's education agenda, albeit, at this time, only in a national context (National Curriculum Council, cited in Steiner 1996).

In 1999, the citizenship agenda broadened, with the introduction of the International School Award, which explicitly encouraged schools to internationalise their curricula and teaching, primarily through links with schools in other parts of the world, many of which were via the former Commonwealth network. As educational cooperation amongst the European Union member countries increased throughout the 1980s and 1990s, projects such as Erasmus and, later, Comenius, Leonardo Da Vinci and Socrates, continued to encourage and fund the internationalising of education through pan-European links, and the emergence of the Common Reference Framework has facilitated closer cooperation on the format and content of teacher education throughout Europe (European Commission 2008).

More recently, the government's international strategy paper, *Putting the World into World Class Education* (Department for Education and Skills 2004), commits to 'investment in leadership and staff development, *including* training for teachers in how to integrate global citizenship into the whole of the curriculum'. *Developing the global dimension in the school curriculum* (Department for Education and Skills 2005) expands the strategy into practical implementation, aiming to 'place the school curriculum within a broader, global context, showing how all subjects can incorporate the global dimension', and support is offered to schools by International Education Officers or Citizenship Advisers attached to each Local Education Authority.

Despite these advances, however, the 80+ statements that make up the Professional Standards for Teaching (Training and Development Agency 2008) contain no reference to the knowledge and skills teachers need to be able to fulfil the strategy's expectations, beyond a basic awareness of how students are diverse. Not surprisingly, therefore, no examples were found of the systematic inclusion of international perspectives in pre-service teacher education programmes (the Cambridge examples included are internationally focused but do not fully qualify participants as teachers).

University of Bath, Centre for the study of Education in an International Context
www.bath.ac.uk/ceic/
Postgraduate
<p>The Centre for the study of Education in an International Context (CEIC) exists to promote international education in a variety of different ways. It has strong links with a number of individuals and organisations outside the University of Bath, including the International Baccalaureate's Research Team (IBRT), which is based within the Department of Education.</p> <p>CEIC's major functions are as follows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • research into international education, through personal research, research projects coordinated by CEIC, and research degrees of MPhil, PhD and EdD supervised by CEIC members and engaged in on a part-time basis by teachers and administrators in different parts of the world; • publishing the outcomes of research relating to international education; • developing and teaching modular courses from the Department's programme of advanced courses leading to the Postgraduate Certificate in Educational Studies, Postgraduate Diploma in Education and degree of MA in Education (with the possibility of specialising in areas including International Education). Modular courses are available through Summer School and through Study Centres established in locations around the world (including Belgium, China, Dubai, Germany, Singapore, Thailand and the UK); • developing and teaching modular courses specialising in international education which contribute to the Department's modular doctorate programme, the EdD; • in-service and consultancy work around the world, at both individual institution and national system levels.

University of Sussex, Centre for International Education
www.sussex.ac.uk/education/1-4-21.html
Postgraduate
<p>The Centre for International Education (CIE) provides a focal point for work on education and development in low-income countries, founded on the understanding that education lies at the heart of development and poverty reduction, as both part of the definition of development, and a means to achieving sustainable improvements in livelihoods and well being.</p> <p>Global initiatives on Education for All associated with major development agencies, World Conferences in Jomtien and Dakar, and commitment to the Millennium Development Goals have created a new momentum to increase participation, improve equity, promote relevance, and enhance learning outcomes. CIE activities are designed to support these initiatives through working collaboratively with professionals across the developing world, with development agencies that provide external assistance, and with national governments involved in policy-making, planning, and implementation. An important element of this international collaboration includes our postgraduate programmes at Masters and Doctoral levels.</p>

University of London Institute of Education
www.ioe.ac.uk
Postgraduate
<p>The Institute of Education at the University of London offers a wide range of internationally-orientated Masters degrees, for example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bilingual learners in Urban Educational Settings – designed for teachers and other professionals who are working with minority ethnic and bilingual learners • Citizenship - examines debates on patriotism, nationalism and cosmopolitanism that have influenced history and citizenship education, nationally and internationally • Comparative Education – designed to enhance understanding of educational issues in different professional contexts through awareness of educational systems and developments in other countries • Development Education – the first Masters’ level course in the UK to focus specifically on development education, this course approaches learning about global and development issues through focusing on ways in which people's lives around the world are linked • International Development –designed for teachers working in developing countries • Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages - designed for practicing teachers of ESOL throughout the world

Oxford Brookes University
www.brookes.ac.uk/schools/education/maedint.html
Postgraduate
<p>The MA in Education (International Schools) is a 2-year programme consisting of intensive summer schools, a dissertation and a range of compulsory and optional modules, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflective Professional Development • International Schools as Organisations • Managing People in International Schools • Introduction to Teaching and Learning in International Schools • Principles and Practice and Curricula in International Schools • Multilingual and Multicultural Contexts in Education <p>The course is aimed at experienced international educators, who can apply the theoretical learning to their own practice and context, and to facilitate this, OBU has initiated several European study centres.</p>

University of Cambridge, English as a Second or Other Language
www.cambridgeesol.org
ITE and Postgraduate
<p>The University of Cambridge offers a wide range of qualifications for teachers of English of different experience levels, ranging from introductory certificates for those with no prior teaching experience or qualification, to advanced diplomas for qualified and experienced teachers. Taken by over 12,000 teachers each year, these are probably the most widely recognised teacher education qualifications internationally.</p> <p>Although primarily concerned with developing understanding of the English language and the skills of teaching it to non-native speakers, these courses also include many of the other elements identified as essential for international teachers: raising awareness of the international context of education; catering for diverse student needs; cultural sensitivity; internationalising curriculum, in the sense of contextualising what is taught and how it is taught to be appropriate for different cultural settings; and creating networks of support to ease the transitions that often accompany such teaching positions.</p>

United States of America

Widely considered the originator of an international focus on education in the US, the Institute of International Education (2008) was established in 1919, in the aftermath of World War I, to facilitate greater understanding between nations through international educational exchange. Throughout the 1920s IIE organised student, faculty and teacher exchanges with several European governments, and in the 1930s hundreds of European refugee scholars escaping from German, Italian and Spanish fascist regimes were integrated into the US. IIE also opened the first exchanges with the Soviet Union and Latin America, and following World War II, helped establish a variety of organisations concerned with international cooperation through education, for example, the Association of International Educators and the Council on International Educational Exchange. Throughout the past 50 years, IIE's programmes have continued to expand and it has become increasingly involved with educational projects throughout Asia, Africa, Latin America, Eastern Europe and the Middle-East.

This same period saw the emergence of numerous other organisations with similar ideals, for example, the Comparative and International Education Society in 1956 (2008) and the American Forum for Global Education in 1970 (2008). In 1976, Hanvey described *An Attainable Global Perspective*, aiming for schools and teachers to develop students' abilities to react to event-focused media reports with a degree of scepticism rather than unquestioning acceptance, considering that "There may be more than meets the eye" and that "Other eyes might see it differently" as simple starting points for greater global awareness. That the Global Education Forum, one of the US's foremost proponents of internationalising education, still displays Hanvey's essay prominently more than 20 years later, is both a positive testament to the enduring focus placed on internationalising, and a negative indication that too little has been achieved in practical terms.

Currently, international education and global perspectives feature extensively and explicitly in policy and mission statements of schools, colleges, universities and education boards throughout the United States, and the InternationalEd website (2007),

of the Asia Society, lists initiatives in internationalising education in twenty seven states. The US Department of Education itself places internationalising centrally, incorporating an International Education Programs Service (IEPS) responsible for enhancing Americans' ability to live, work, and compete successfully in an increasingly interconnected world.

In considering the needs of students, it recognises the special challenges facing teachers: increasingly multicultural classrooms (the US Bureau of the Census March 2000 Current Population Survey shows 11.5 million children whose parents are immigrants) and the associated need to teach about international issues, develop students' appreciation for other cultures and encourage a broader outlook by helping students see the links between their own lives and global events (Department of Education 2008). The International Education Programs Service leads the Department of Education's efforts to expand intercultural literacy and global understanding, working with higher education institutions to encourage the incorporation of global perspectives into teacher preparation programmes, and offering a range of grant programmes that support this, for example, the Fulbright Program described below (Council for International Exchange of Scholars 2008).

Private funding also features prominently in the US and awards such as the Goldman Sachs Foundation Prizes for Excellence in International Education (Goldman Sachs 2008) and the Ford Foundation Grants and Fellowships (Ford Foundation 2008) support a wide range of international education initiatives for individuals, schools and districts.

Although not described individually, Trenton State and Michigan State Universities are worthy of mention as two of the earliest US universities to provide off-site courses specifically aimed at international teachers, for example, Masters degrees in English as a Second Language offered as intensive summer courses in Europe.

George Mason University, Fast Train programme
www.gmu.edu/gse/fasttrain
ITE and Postgraduate
The Fast Train programme, started in 1990 by George Mason University and the US State Department, allows graduates both from within and outside the USA to gain a teaching licence and a Masters in Education from the State of Virginia. The programme consists of on-site intensive summer courses, online modules, and extensive fieldwork, including at least one year of overseas teaching, and follows the State of Virginia teacher licensure syllabus requirements with the additional focus on preparation for international contexts. The programme was originally initiated for spouses of State Department employees working outside the USA, to allow them to become qualified teachers without returning home for extensive study periods. Fast Train students are mainly American but several other nationalities are also represented. Teaching is in English but information from the 2002 intensive summer programme showed 25 other languages spoken by participants, for example, Spanish, Arabic, French and Mandarin. The 2002 cohort were typical in that 98% of the 70 students had already lived outside the USA, in a total of 67 countries, and 55% of them were already working as teachers before qualifying.

University of Illinois, Center for Global Studies
www.cgs.uiuc.edu
Postgraduate
<p>The Center for Global Studies at the University of Illinois incorporates international perspectives through a wide range of teacher preparation courses, for example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internationalization, which looks at policy and curriculum development in school settings; • Identity and Culture in Transnational Contexts, which considers how national and international factors shape the construction and development of culture and identity; • Learning and Pedagogy, which explores how global perspectives enlighten and challenge traditional views of teaching and learning • Technology, Globalization and Education Reform, which examines key dimensions of technology use in schools, and the challenges and opportunities provided by globalization • Global Perspectives in Twenty-First Century Curriculum Studies, which considers the implications for educational theory and practice of increasing interconnectivity across national borders around the world • Globalization and Educational Policy, which examines the ways in which global processes affect the development of educational ideas, ideologies and policies

Goshen College, Indiana
www.goshen.edu
ITE
<p>Established in 1894, Goshen College offers several types of international education. The most prominent of these is a general requirement for each student to complete a Study-Service Term, designed to immerse them in a culture significantly different from that of the United States, with the aims of developing intercultural openness, multilingual communication, active and reflective thinking, and understanding of self and others. SSTs are currently offered in China, Cambodia, Peru, Jamaica, Nicaragua, Germany, Tanzania and Senegal, and the first six weeks of the SST are spent studying the language and culture of the host country, including history, art, literature and natural science. The program is largely experience-based and incorporates home stays, lectures, discussions, field trips, journal writing, readings, special projects and examinations. During the last six weeks of the term, students work in a field/service-learning assignment, usually in a rural area. Most Goshen College faculty have lived and worked outside the US, and have close personal and professional links with the SST host countries.</p>

The Fulbright Program
www.cies.org/about_fulb.htm
Postgraduate
The Fulbright Program is the U.S. government's flagship program in international educational exchange, established in 1946 by Senator J. W. Fulbright of Arkansas. In the aftermath of World War II, Senator Fulbright envisaged the program as a vehicle for promoting "mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of other countries of the world" and in the ensuing six decades it has facilitated exchanges for more than a quarter of a million scholars from within and beyond the United States for a wide range of educational activities, including research, lecturing and teaching.

World Learning, SIT Graduate Institute, Vermont
www.worldlearning.org
Postgraduate
Founded in 1932 as The US Experiment in International Living, the World Learning organisation is dedicated to promoting international education, social justice and world peace. Its Graduate Institute began as a training center for early Peace Corps volunteers and now prepares students from more than 30 countries to become informed and effective leaders, professionals and global citizens.
The range of Masters programs includes courses in International Education, Language and Culture and Diplomacy, and, for teachers already working outside the US, offers low-residency options based on intensive summer study combined with distance field experience modules completed at their own schools.

Australia

While the history of international education in Australia is relatively new, a draft report from the Centre for Strategic Education (2008) in Melbourne indicates that since the 1960s there has been a growing awareness in Australia of the need for young Australians to better understand world issues and therefore, for education that includes international dimensions. Beginning by recognising its own cultural and linguistic diversity, as in other countries, such internationalising has happened largely through the commitment of individuals, schools and organisations rather than through systematic policy implementation of federal or state governments. In 1999, however, educational goals agreed by the Federal government declared the internationalisation of schools to be essential, with an associated need for the development of new skills, knowledge and values in the curriculum (Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations 2008).

This was followed by the national strategy, *Global Perspectives: A Statement on Global Education for Australian Schools* (2002), which acknowledged previous efforts to integrate an international dimension, much of it implicit in the work of the development, environmental and multicultural education movements. It also encouraged a more explicit approach by schools, in particular, in relation to 'Asia Literacy': aiming to equip students with 'the skills and knowledge to engage with their geographic neighbours, major trading partners and emerging world economic centres'. This further developed into a *National Statement for Engaging Young Australians with Asia in*

Australian Schools (MCEETYA, cited in CSE 2008) and a countrywide major internationalisation strategy.

Building on more than a decade of work by the Asia Education Foundation (cited in CSE 2008) the Statement details the skills, knowledge and understandings deemed essential for students, and also, for the first time, identifies some of the corresponding implications for initial teacher education and ongoing professional development. It emphasises the need for action at strategic and policy levels to avoid schools merely taking simplistic routes, for example, including occasional knowledge-based lessons on Asia, rather than striving to develop conceptual understandings and intercultural skills. Ongoing publications from the Asia Education Foundation offer support to schools on developing more comprehensive, systematic approaches that include curriculum modifications, language programmes, teacher education and exchange opportunities both for students and teachers. A 2007 Scoping Study by the DEECD (cited in CSE 2008) revealed, however, that despite numerous opportunities for teacher exchanges, in, for example, China, Japan and Korea, the actual take-up of such opportunities was very limited, with the vast majority being only short-term (2-3 weeks) programmes focusing on language acquisition. Such limited use of the opportunities available might come as a surprise to anyone who has experienced the large numbers of Australian teachers living in many of the major cities of Europe, for example, London.

As in most countries, growing awareness in government and official departments in Australia, has been supported, indeed prompted, by the work of a range of non-governmental organisations, for example, the Global Education Centres that are spread around the country (CSE 2008). It seems, however, that such support has not been reciprocal, with such organisations working largely independently of government sponsorship. The Asia Education Foundation is an exception, having received government funding since 1992.

Universities have, in one respect, led the Australian drive for internationalising, seeing the world, and in particular Asia, as an increasingly accessible market for students, either by bringing them to Australian campuses, or by establishing new campuses throughout the world. Review of teacher education programmes shows, however, that few have done much to internationalise beyond this global marketing. The examples that follow are noteworthy exceptions to this general observation.

Monash University, Centre for Research in International Education
http://education.monash.edu.au
Postgraduate
<p>MCRIE was established in 1997 to conduct research, develop & deliver award courses, and support exchange of ideas & information re international education. The goals are for students to develop:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An understanding of the economic and cultural impact of globalisation and new information technologies on education • Awareness of the ethical, pedagogical, curricular, financial-planning and administrative issues involved in providing education across national and cultural boundaries • Skills required to analyse education in an international setting • The ability to devise culturally-informed approaches to the development, marketing and delivery of international programs <p>The International Education Pathway courses focus on three core subjects:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Issues in international education • Cross-cultural curriculum and pedagogy • Managing international education

The Flinders University, Institute of International Education
www.ehlt.flinders.edu.au/education/
Postgraduate
<p>The Institute of International Education was established in 1997. International Education refers broadly to the study of education in countries or cultures other than our own. Research and teaching in the Institute therefore encompasses a wide diversity of areas, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comparative Education • Cross-cultural Perspectives and Issues in Education • Cross-national studies of School Performance • Development Education • Indigenous Education • New Information Technology Education • Third World Education

University of Melbourne
www.app.portal.unimelb.edu.au/CSCApplication/view/2009/960-IB
Postgraduate
<p>The University of Melbourne is the first university to provide academic qualifications leading to the IB Level 2 (Associate) Teacher Award. The Master of Education (International Baccalaureate) will enable students to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrate a superior knowledge and understanding of educational theory in the field of international education • Make effective use of the findings of educational writings and research in formulating solutions to issues or challenges in the area of international education • Demonstrate depth of knowledge and understanding that will enable them to be a resource for colleagues regarding issues in international education in particular professional situations <p>It includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IB Primary Years Programme Introduced and Advanced • Perspectives of International Education • Reflection in Learning and Teaching • Innovation and Change in Language Education

Deakin University, Geelong
www.deakin.edu.au/arts-ed/education/courses/postgrad/educators/international.php
Postgraduate
<p>Deakin University's School of education offers a Graduate Certificate and Master of Education with a specialisation in International Schooling, specifically designed for those working in international schools. These courses have been developed for professional educators looking to expand career prospects by advancing the knowledge required to be even better teachers and managers in international schools worldwide and are available by distance education anywhere in the world. During the course participants will gain an understanding of contemporary education issues and discourses, especially as they relate to international schooling.</p>

Canada

In Canada, education does not fall within the scope of federal jurisdiction, but is the responsibility of each individual province and territory, creating specific challenges in developing and implementing nationwide strategies relating to international education.

The Conference Board of Canada (1999) reported that, on the basis of 19 indicators, Canada's overall participation in international education was falling in comparison with nine other countries studied. For example, it invested only 80 cents per capita support for international education initiatives compared to \$9.07 for Australia, \$4.94 for Japan and \$4.70 for the USA. The report concluded that Canada's lack of a coordinated and defined international education strategy was a significant negative factor, emphasising the success of those countries, such as Australia and the UK, which had adopted

national strategies, committed resources, and moved towards creating single federally-funded national coordinating bodies as points of information and services delivery.

The report does recognise government efforts to promote Canada's strengths in provision of second language training and describes several international cooperation initiatives with Europe, USA and Mexico. It also highlights the important role played by non-governmental organisations such as the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, the Canadian Bureau for International Education, Canadian Education Centre and the British Columbia Centre for International Education in raising the profile of international education, albeit primarily with economics in mind.

Farquhar (2001) argues the wider case for increased federal emphasis on international education, presenting four sets of rationales:

- Cultural, for example, transmittal of Canadian values to other countries; assisting other nations through education; enriching Canadians' education and culture through understanding of other cultures and languages
- Political, for example, enhancing national security through knowledge and understanding of other countries' histories, politics, leaders and motivations; increasing other countries' awareness of Canada; increasing Canada's influence worldwide; appreciating the growing need for international connectedness determined by globalization
- Academic, for example, enhancing the quality of education by capitalizing on the linguistic and cultural diversity presented by increasing numbers of international students; encouraging Canadian students to complete some of their studies in other countries; sharing academic expertise with both developed and less developed countries
- Economic, for example, involvement in international education shows positive correlations to economic performance; countries with a more coordinated national approach to international education show greater economic benefits than those who do not.

Perhaps not surprisingly, given the preceding comments, most evidence of international perspectives found within Canadian teacher education programmes consisted of student exchange or international recruitment initiatives, with few examples of the good practice that is so urgently needed. There is, however, one redeeming feature of the Canadian system: a focus on multilingualism far more comprehensive than in other countries investigated, with a reliable supply of bilingual teachers from the Eastern provinces, an abundance of bilingual university courses and the ubiquitous inclusion of Second Language modules in teacher education programmes.

Simon Fraser University, Faculty of Education
www.edu.sfu.ca
ITE and Postgraduate
<p>Simon Fraser University offers a wide range of internationally-orientated courses as part of the British Columbia Teaching Certificate:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The International Teacher Education Module aims to encourage the development of global perspectives by giving students international experiences in Mexico and Trinidad & Tobago, chosen for their economic, cultural and educational links with Canada; the opportunity for north-south context comparisons; the multicultural/multiethnic/multilingual nature of the countries; the importance of English language and literacy development in those countries; and connections with several higher education institutions. • Teaching children from minority language backgrounds in elementary classrooms, is primarily focused on local situations but is also very relevant in an international context. • Similar to the previous module, the seminar course, Cognition and language in ESL instruction, would prove very relevant to teachers in both national and international settings

University of Calgary, Faculty of Education
www.educ.ucalgary.ca/community/international
Postgraduate
<p>In line with the Strategic Direction of the University of Calgary and in light of today's global context, the Faculty of Education is involved in, and sponsors, a variety of international activities. A key facet of internationalization is expanding the way faculty and students situate themselves beyond the routines and practices of local ways...to enrich, to expand, to challenge, to see ourselves and others similarly and differently, and to act upon the perspectives gained through international collaboration.</p> <p>Recent international initiatives include: Kosovar Educator Development Project, helping rebuild the education system in Kosovo; South Africa Teacher Development Project, which aims to strengthen and build capacity in the area of teacher training and education; a consortium project to enhance the quality of education available to children in rural and remote areas of three provinces of Western China.</p>

University of Toronto, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education
www.oise.utoronto.ca/oise/
ITE and Postgraduate
<p>The Departments of Curriculum, Teaching and Learning; Initial Teacher Education; and Continuing Education all strive to include international elements in their programmes. These include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diverse student populations and curriculum equity • Comparative education • Education in International Settings • Conflict / Peace Education • Democratic Citizenship and Global Perspectives • Anti-racist, Multicultural and Anti-discriminatory Education • Educating Immigrant and English as a Second Language Students

These brief snapshots are included to illustrate how international perspectives are actively being included in programmes in the four countries providing most international teachers, in the hope that they might act as models for more extensive inclusion at both ITE and Postgraduate levels. As the survey data showed, however, there are teachers of many other nationalities working in international schools, and to complete this section, one further programme is included as the only example found to be dedicated specifically to preparing teachers for international education.

Det Nødvendige Seminarium, Ulfborg, Denmark
www.dns-tvind.dk
ITE
<p>Unique amongst the colleges and universities reviewed, Det Nødvendige Seminarium (2008) (The Necessary Teacher Training College) is dedicated specifically to preparing teachers for international contexts. Started in Ulfborg, Denmark in 1972, it aims to provide a socially-responsible, internationally-orientated teacher education programme to students of all nationalities. In addition to the traditional pedagogical and academic focus, the four-year course includes a study trip to Asia and substantial teaching practices in Denmark and Africa. Students undertake extensive preparation for the international experiences, including generic courses in cross-cultural awareness and multilingualism, as well as specific study of the language and culture of the countries to be visited.</p>

Aiming to equip its graduates with both the mindset and the skills to teach internationally, Det Nødvendige Seminarium might be considered the perfect model of preparation for international teachers. Yet still there is a potential problem, as teachers graduate with Danish certification, which may not be accepted worldwide. The limited reciprocity of recognition of teacher qualifications is highlighted by Levy (2007) as another aspect of international teacher education in need of review and reform, yet which receives little attention. In the past decade, initiatives such as the Common European Framework (European Commission 2005) have begun to ease teacher mobility between EU member states, and many countries have special protocols for

aligning other country's qualifications with their own, for example, England's Overseas Trained Teacher Programme (Training and Development Agency 2008), Australia's Skills Assessment for Migration (Teaching Australia 2008) and Canada's one semester Professional Qualification Programs for immigrant teachers, which recognise their own qualifications and experience while orientating them to the Canadian education system (for example, Simon Fraser University 2008). While initiatives such as these are a welcome move in the right direction, systems need to develop more quickly to meet current rates of mobility, and further study needs to be done to determine whether international alignment of qualifications can really be successful while teacher education programmes focus almost exclusively on national needs.

To conclude, this chapter has presented findings relating to three key questions about international school teachers. The first question, 'What are international teachers?' revealed a diverse range of factors motivating teachers to teach internationally, as well as several characteristics they have in common, while the second question, 'What are *effective* international teachers?' indicated clear agreement about a number of traits deemed important by international school students, parents, administrators and teachers themselves. Based on key issues facing international teachers, which were raised in Chapter 2, the third question investigated what training teachers deem important, what training they have and what types of training in internationalism is available in the teacher education programmes of the countries generating the majority of international teachers. While the examples presented are encouraging, they represent only individual pockets of good practice, and, despite the focus of government policies in each of these four countries, internationalising teacher education still seems far from the systematic and comprehensive model that is needed to ensure that essential knowledge and skills are included in the preparation of all teachers.

In the next chapter, therefore, the literature and the research findings will be synthesised into seven domains of knowledge and skills to form the base of a comprehensive model of preparation and certification, primarily for international teachers but which, given the evidence of need highlighted within national systems, could valuably be applied to the education of all teachers.

CHAPTER 5

SEVEN DOMAINS OF KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS DEEMED ESSENTIAL FOR INTERNATIONAL TEACHERS

Introducing the seven domains

‘Unlike international companies where personnel...are given pre-departure cross-cultural training and orientation programmes...(in international schools) it remains the individual teacher’s responsibility to ensure that they are well-prepared for the task’ (Joslin 2000). The result of this is that international teachers are often not as well-prepared as they could be, and most international school administrators could relate tales of new recruits who left during the first week or term of school unhappy with the school and/or location, or who simply did not turn up for the start date. The inadequate preparation is largely due to two factors: a lack of awareness on the part of the teachers of the need for preparation, and a lack of systematic availability of appropriate preparation. Hayden (2006) writes convincingly of the need for teacher induction as a means of easing teachers into new school settings, yet, important though this is, it is not where teacher preparation should start. This thesis aims to highlight the need for a much earlier, more fundamental level of preparation that supplements, complements, and in fact underpins, the induction provided by individual schools.

Synthesised from the literature on traits of effective teachers and supported by the survey data presented in Chapter 4, anecdotal evidence from the international schools context, and my own experience as an international teacher and administrator, this current chapter describes seven domains of knowledge and skills deemed essential for international teachers, and proposes a model of teacher education based on these seven domains that could help teachers be better prepared for international schools. While the focus of this thesis is primarily on the international schools’ context, it is my contention that such a model could be valuable if integrated into any teacher education programme aiming to give its participants an international perspective. It is recognised that many of the elements described are available to teachers through postgraduate courses, and indeed, given the time pressures on initial teacher education in most countries, this might well be deemed the most practical way for teachers to gain such knowledge and skills. However, it is the strong contention of this thesis that, whether embedded in initial teacher education or mandated as part of ongoing professional development, the elements described within the seven domains must be considered essential for all teachers rather than optional extras for some.

Addressing the most important aspects of international education for the teachers working within it, the seven domains have individual significance as well as together representing a comprehensive model of teacher preparation for international schools. Domain I, International education in context, is concerned with the big picture, and teachers’ familiarity with what international education is and how it works, as well as an awareness of education systems and practices worldwide. Domains II, III and IV are concerned with teachers’ awareness of a range of student characteristics – the breadth of student diversity generally (II), and specifically multiculturalism (III) and multilingualism (IV), which are of fundamental importance in international education. Domain V, Transition, examines mobility and the associated problems it can cause, not only to students and parents, but to mobile teachers themselves. Domain VI, Internationalising curriculum, focuses on how teachers address these characteristics and problems by internationalising both what and how they teach. And finally, Domain VII,

The reflective international teacher, focuses on teachers' mindsets and the need for, and issues associated with, continuing professional development within the international education context. For each of the seven domains a brief definition is given and some key practical implications are outlined, followed by an in-depth rationale for the domain's inclusion as an essential element of preparation for international teachers.

Seven domains of knowledge and skills deemed essential for international teachers	
Domain I: International education in context	
International teachers need to understand the international context of education, appreciating both the unique profile of each school and the diversity amongst education systems, as well as the roles played by major educational organisations, regionally and globally.	<p><u>In practice</u>, this means:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) contributing to the ideal of developing globally-minded students b) appreciating the rewards of working in culturally and linguistically diverse settings c) contributing positively to meet the challenges raised by cultural and linguistic diversity d) participating in social and educational projects within the local and global communities e) being knowledgeable about educational systems and practices worldwide
Domain II : Student characteristics and learning	
International teachers need to be familiar with student characteristics, including stage theories of development, age-level characteristics and student variability in learning.	<p><u>In practice</u>, this means:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) providing learning opportunities that are adapted to diverse learners and align with their intellectual, social and personal development levels b) being sensitive to the multiple experiences of learners and addresses different learning and performance modes c) making appropriate provisions (in terms of time and circumstances for work, tasks assigned, communication and response modes) for individual students who have particular learning differences or needs.
Domain III : Multiculturalism	
International teachers use strategies that facilitate the achievement of students from diverse cultural groups.	<p><u>In practice</u>, this means:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) demonstrating the use of several different approaches to integrate content about cultural groups into the curriculum. b) helping students understand that knowledge is constructed, and is influenced by the biases, frames of reference and perspectives of individuals, groups and disciplines. c) proactively using strategies to develop positive attitudes and ensure equal status of different cultural groups.
Domain IV : Teaching in multilingual classrooms	
International teachers value students' multilingual abilities and demonstrates understanding of the processes involved in language acquisition and development in the first and subsequent languages.	<p><u>In practice</u>, this means:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) encouraging students to use their first language for personal, social and academic reasons b) planning and implementing differentiated learning experiences and assessment strategies appropriate to students' language profiles
Domain V: Transition	
International teachers are sensitive to the difficulties transition can cause and, in addition to handling personal stresses effectively, is skilled in supporting students and parents.	<p><u>In practice</u>, this means:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) adapting easily to new situations b) systematically using strategies to facilitate new students becoming as effective as possible as soon as possible c) offering additional support to new parents d) facilitating students' onward transfer
Domain VI: Internationalising curriculum	
International teachers actively seek to enrich both what and how they teach with multiple international perspectives.	<p><u>In practice</u>, this means:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) becoming familiar with existing international curricula b) internationalising units of work c) demanding that students seek and consider multiple perspectives d) critically assessing resources to avoid bias and stereotyping e) utilising firsthand sources, including the experience of students and parents, to present authentic perspectives and opinions whenever possible
Domain VII: The reflective international teacher	
International teachers are reflective practitioners who continually evaluate the effects of their choices and actions on others (students, parents, and other professionals in the learning community) and who actively seek out opportunities to grow professionally and extend their horizons.	<p><u>In practice</u>, this means:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) using classroom observation, information about students, and research as sources for evaluating the outcomes of teaching and learning and as a basis for experimenting with, reflecting on, and revising practice. b) seeking out professional literature, colleagues, and other resources to support their own development as learners and teachers. c) drawing upon colleagues within the school and other professional arenas worldwide as supports for reflection, problem-solving and new ideas, actively sharing experiences and seeking and giving feedback. d) regularly participating in professional development activities, including action research, to improve practice.

Fig. 45 Seven domains of knowledge and skills essential for international teachers (Snowball 2007)

Domain I: International education in context

This domain addresses the need for international teachers to understand the international context of education, appreciating both the unique profile of each school and the diversity amongst education systems, as well as the key role international schools play in developing internationally-minded students.

It is clear that teacher effectiveness is best considered within a specific school context, and, as detailed in Chapter 4, Shulman (1986) highlighted this in two of his *Seven types of knowledge common to experienced, competent teachers*: ‘Knowledge of educational contexts (how schools and classrooms work in particular geo/social contexts)’ and ‘Knowledge of educational aims, values, and their philosophical and historical grounds’. Throughout this thesis it has been emphasised that international schools are so diverse as to defy simple definition and international teachers need to be able to navigate their way through equally diverse sets of policies, procedures and practices in each new school. Add to this the complexities of new host-country contexts, with unfamiliar systems for day-to-day needs such as transportation, shopping, medical care and banking, and the importance of the traits identified in Chapter 4 - independent; calm and patient in dealing with different systems; and financially astute - becomes apparent.

With thousands of schools serving tens of thousands of students, the international education sector can already be considered significant, and, as trends towards internationalism continue worldwide, seems likely to play an increasingly important role in the broader educational context. The presence of international schools can significantly influence local economies, for example, being a prerequisite for attracting international companies to particular locations, as well as preparing national citizens with the skills and knowledge needed to be part of an international workforce, for example, as in China, Korea, India and the United Arab Emirates. International teachers are clearly key to the success of such internationalising, and as current figures suggest that they are already in short supply, growing demand will make appropriately prepared teachers an increasingly valuable commodity.

My own experience, and anecdotal evidence from colleagues, suggests that many teachers enter international education without knowing very much about it. Hayden’s useful overview of international schools’ recruitment processes (2006) lists the numerous ways in which international schools can and do recruit teachers, some of which, as she comments, might appear somewhat unusual to teachers familiar with the more uniform approach typical of national education systems. From the initial question of where to look for international teaching positions through to the eventual details of contractual benefits and obligations, the process can be bewildering for the teachers involved, not least because each international school typically has its own unique system.

As was illustrated in Chapter 4, the factors influencing teachers’ decisions to move into international education are very varied, and indeed, many teachers report finding their first international school job serendipitously rather than by purposeful searching. Anecdotal evidence accumulated during my 20 years in international schools consistently illustrates the naivety with which teachers take jobs in schools and locations they know relatively little about, and indeed my own experience in taking my first international school position with Vienna International School was typical of this.

I considered myself sensible and worldly, yet, while we had visited Vienna many times, I knew very little about actually living there: job prospects for my husband (a non-

German-speaking engineer), property laws, pension systems, residence and work permits, etc. In my tenth year of teaching in England, I also considered myself an experienced educator, yet I quickly became aware of how little I knew about the international context of which I was now part.

Two contrasting characteristics of international education that often come as surprises to new international teachers are:

- first, that there is a vast network of international schools that covers most major cities worldwide
- second, that although part of this network by virtue of being international, each school is independent, and unique in its configuration of policies, systems and programmes.

This realisation, though basic, is a good start. Yet to really understand the context of international education, teachers must understand what the ‘international’ aspect means: a much more complex concept to unravel.

We have already emphasised the consensus of many authors that international education is difficult to define most notably, Hayden and Thompson 1998, 2000, 2002, and Hayden 2006) and, as Bartlett (2000) argues, ‘While international education, and the schools providing it, might have the superficial appearance of a ‘movement’, this is far from the reality. With the exception of isolated clusters such as the United World Colleges, international schools share no recognized philosophical foundation. There are no deeply held, publicly declared beliefs and values to bind them, to bond them into a coherent global system.’ Although Bartlett may have overstated the case (and indeed he was making an argument in support of the development of a more coherent system based around the International Baccalaureate programmes), as we have demonstrated, schools calling or considering themselves international are widely diverse, and include schools that are international by name and schools that are international by nature, ranging from education by expatriates for expatriates to education by host country nationals for host country nationals. Of course there are common elements, and each is likely to have some or all of the following: cultural diversity of students and/or staff; multilingual environment; mobile students and/or teachers; international curriculum. Yet the interpretation and implementation of internationalism will vary greatly depending on factors such as philosophical commitment, time, resources and teacher preparation, as highlighted by Matthews’ differentiation between market-driven and ideology-driven international schools (1988). Yet though Matthews’ focus on ideology helps us understand the diverse nature of international schools, his two-fold categorisation seems too simplistic and at least one further, interim category can readily be identified.

- Typically, ‘market-driven’ schools will see the demand for internationalism as an economic opportunity to be exploited, with no real philosophical commitment to developing international-minded students. The focus of such schools often remains nationally-orientated, teachers have little special preparation for the international context and minimal adaptations are made to curriculum or pedagogy, for example, programmes may be taught in a language perceived to be more marketable, such as English. (This can currently be seen in many universities, where internationalising primarily means targeting enrolment of overseas students: while there is often some positive benefit from the resultant cultural mixing, this is incidental and therefore not optimised.)

- The 'ideology-driven' schools that Matthews refers to should be typified by purposeful commitment to internationalism and the goal of developing active global citizens together with a deeper, more sophisticated understanding of what this means. Supported by tailored curriculum, adequate time, appropriate resources and thorough teacher preparation, such schools reflect ideals illustrated more than a century ago in this 1902 address by John Dewey: 'Recent inventions have so multiplied and cheapened the means of transportation, and of the circulation of ideas and news...that it is no longer physically possible for one nationality, race, class, or sect to be kept apart from others, impervious to their wishes and beliefs. Cheap and rapid long-distance transportation has made America a meeting-place for all the peoples and tongues of the world. The centralization of industry has forced members of classes into the closest association with, and dependence upon, each other. Bigotry, intolerance, or even unswerving faith in the superiority of one's own religious and political creed, are much shaken when individuals are brought face-to-face with each other, or have the ideas of others continuously and forcibly placed before them...No educational system can be regarded as complete until it adopts into itself the various ways in which social and intellectual intercourse may be promoted, and employs them systematically...to make them positive causes in raising the whole level of life.'
- In my experience, however, most international schools fall somewhere between Matthews' two categories, for, if not market-driven, neither are they fully ideology-driven. Most have an ideological commitment to developing internationally-minded students and their focus is internationally-orientated. Yet the interpretation and implementation may be naive and superficial, often due to lack of time, limited resources, and inadequate teacher preparation. Such schools often believe that they can internationalise simply by having students, parents and staff of different nationalities together, and typically display the so-called 'Four Fs' style of internationalism - Flags are displayed, Festivals are celebrated, Food is shared and Fashions (ie. traditional national costumes) are worn. Also typical of such schools is the increasingly popular trend of 'twinning' with schools in other countries. At worst, such activities are ad hoc and isolated; at best they are an integrated part of the programme: yet in either case, they do not optimize their internationalism.

International curricula and international students have become very marketable commodities, and with the plethora of new international schools emerging, even experienced teachers need to investigate thoroughly before committing to new positions in unknown schools. Accreditation by regional and global organisations such as the Council of International Schools (CIS) and the New England Association of Schools and Colleges (NEASC) gives some measure of security, but even these offer no guarantees as they often aim to be inclusive and non-judgmental. The informal 'word of mouth' that Hayden mentions (2006, p.79) is a much-used source of information for teachers and schools alike, although it has to be said that bad news travels faster and more widely than good, and such information may not always represent a balanced perspective! While there are examples of schools that effectively combine commercial and ideological motivations, there are more often tensions between the two. Such tensions can affect teachers directly, for example with regard to such things as resource availability, salary and benefits, legal status and tenure, as well as indirectly through the general school ambience and staff morale. Again, speaking from personal experience, as a general rule, ideology-driven teachers would do well to avoid market-driven schools!

Teachers' awareness of the existence of the network of international schools is only the tip of the iceberg. It is my contention that to fully understand the international education context, they must also understand something of the main features of the globalization that underlies, and to a great extent, sustains it. They must become familiar with the factors involved, with the threats and opportunities globalization presents locally and globally, and with the relationship to their own context, economically as well as educationally.

Hayden & Thompson (1998, p. 285), highlight 'teachers as exemplars of international-mindedness' as being one of the core features of international education, 'whether or not that be in an institution called an international school', although, as illustrated in previous chapters, international teachers are motivated by a wide range of factors, and it should be born in mind that, just like schools, they may be more or less philosophically committed to the ideal of developing internationally-minded students. That said, it is certainly the case that international teachers have unique opportunities to extend students' knowledge and understanding beyond the immediate and the familiar, and to nurture dispositions for compassion and action globally, and it follows then that as part of their understanding the context of international education, teachers must have a good understanding of what internationally-minded students are. Definitions and descriptions, though varied in scope and format, are perhaps unsurprisingly consistent when distilled down to basic underlying concepts (see for example, Pike and Selby 1988, Young with Commins 2002, Snowball 2005, Noddings 2005, Oxfam 2006a) and it is to be hoped that for the vast majority of international teachers such goals are a significant part of their intentions.

Domain II: Student characteristics and learning

This domain addresses the need for international teachers to be familiar with student characteristics and how they learn, and to be able to adjust their teaching and structure their classroom environment accordingly. Even schools that are culturally and linguistically homogeneous will have students with a wide variety of individual characteristics, background experiences and learning styles, and it could be argued that international schools are significantly more diverse than typical national schools. Teachers in national systems around the world, however, might refute such an argument, as they deal not only with increasing cultural and linguistic diversity, but also with wide variations in social and economic status unknown to most international schools. (As fee-based institutions, most international schools pre-determine that their clientele will be from the diplomatic and business communities and those with selective intake procedures further homogenise their student community.)

The knowledge, skills and characteristics needed in these diverse settings are well represented in the traits of effective teachers detailed in Chapter 4, again emphasised by another two of Shulman's knowledge types (1986): 'General pedagogical knowledge (different teaching techniques, strategies for managing student behaviour)' and 'Knowledge of learners and their characteristics (understanding student development and how they learn)' as well as the work of Pike and Selby (1988); Clough and Holden (1996); and Young and Commins (2002). In particular, Hamachek's *Thirteen traits of effective teachers* comprehensively addresses the need for teachers to be able to recognise learning variability, and apply a broad, open-minded understanding of pedagogy that includes awareness of diverse theories of thinking and development. This was further emphasised by the survey data, also presented in Chapter 4, which showed

that parents, administrators and teachers themselves rated *pedagogical understanding* and *differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles* as key skills required by effective international teachers.

Diversity

So how are students diverse? In what ways do they differ? Most general teacher education texts agree in their basic categorisation of diversity and a typical list will include some or all of the following: gender, learning style, intelligence, ability, aptitude, race, ethnicity, culture, language, social and economic status (see for example, Cohen, Manion and Morrison 1996; Kyriacou 1997; Arends 2007). The ability of international teachers to address these different aspects of diversity was also highlighted by the survey data, through traits such as *equal opportunities awareness*, *gender sensitivity*, *adaptable classroom management style* and *efficient student assessment*.

In dealing with diversity, teachers are confronted with two seemingly contrasting requirements: equity, which requires them to treat each student equally; and differentiation, which requires them to tailor teaching to take account of individual student differences. In order to do both of these, teachers need to be aware of how students are the same, as well as how they are different. As indicated above, there is ample literature pertaining to each of the different aspects of diversity individually, and this thesis confines itself to considering the practical implications for teachers in a broader sense, as summarised in Figure 46.

How students are the same	How students are different	Implications for the teacher
All students can learn.	Each student has an individual profile of abilities, preferences and styles that determines how they learn best	The teacher must have a sound understanding of pedagogical theories - learning styles, teaching models, developmental theories, intelligence and memory theories, brain-based research - and a wide repertoire of teaching techniques enabling them to give support and challenge as needed.
All students want to learn.	Each student is motivated by different things.	The teacher must be aware of different forms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation eg. self-satisfaction, peer & parent approval, rewards, recognition, competition, collaboration.
All students are influenced by cultural norms.	Each student belongs to one or more cultures.	The teacher must be aware of how school norms may contrast with other norms and appreciate students' ability to deal with several sets of norms simultaneously.
All students are language users.	Each student has a unique language profile consisting of home, social & recreational language/s, current and prior school language/s.	The teacher must understand the complexities of language acquisition and multilingualism, and actively encourage students to use and develop all their language capabilities.
All students have prior educational experience.	Each student's current knowledge, skills and attitudes are determined by their prior experience.	The teacher must be aware of different education systems and should always access students' prior knowledge as a starting point for further learning.

Fig. 46 Equity and differentiation

Differentiation

Silver, Strong and Perini (2000) claim that 'no other century has seen such a shift in the definition of intelligence as we have in the 20th century', and it is certainly true that

brain research generally, together with a wide range of specific new approaches and theories, has contributed significantly to our understanding of how students learn. Each approach and theory, in its own way, emphasises the uniqueness of each student and the necessity for teaching to be tailored to that uniqueness. In the context of the culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms that are increasingly the norm, this presents a significant challenge for international teachers.

Differentiation is not a new concept in education, but it has, like so many other tried and tested strategies, been newly packaged and marketed as the current ‘must-do’, particularly in the USA, and this in turn has spread to the international schools sector. Its ‘fad-like’ image, however, should not detract from its importance. In the survey results given in Chapter 4, we saw that *differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles* was chosen as one of the three most important traits for international teachers: teachers, school administrators, teacher educators and parents all agreed (although interestingly, students did not rate it so highly). Also in the top three was *pedagogical understanding* - how students learn – a fundamental prerequisite for differentiated teaching.

As brain research improves our understanding of the processes involved in learning, their complexity and individualised nature become more apparent. In fact both parents and teachers have probably known forever that each student was unique, but it was acceptable to treat them as a homogeneous group for the purposes of education. However, we are now in an era when research evidence is much more public, even generating prime-time TV programmes and books that make best-sellers lists, and learning theories such as Gardner’s multiple intelligences (1983) and Goleman’s EQ factor (1995) are almost household names in many countries. The result is that not only are teachers better informed, but also parents expect individualised education for their children as never before and this is especially true in international schools where generally class sizes are lower than average, fees are higher and resources are more readily available. In addition, many international schools emphasise the individualised nature of the education offered – phrases such as ‘optimising each student’s potential’ is commonly included in school marketing information. It is unsurprising, therefore, that the call for differentiation has become louder and more widespread.

While teachers generally support differentiation in theory (as illustrated by the survey results in Chapter 4), they often struggle with practical implementation. One reason for this is that they seek a simple, single strategy – a magic formula almost - whereas differentiation is more appropriately regarded as a philosophy or way of thinking about teaching and learning that requires teachers to use a complex repertoire of strategies, for example, those illustrated in Figure 47.

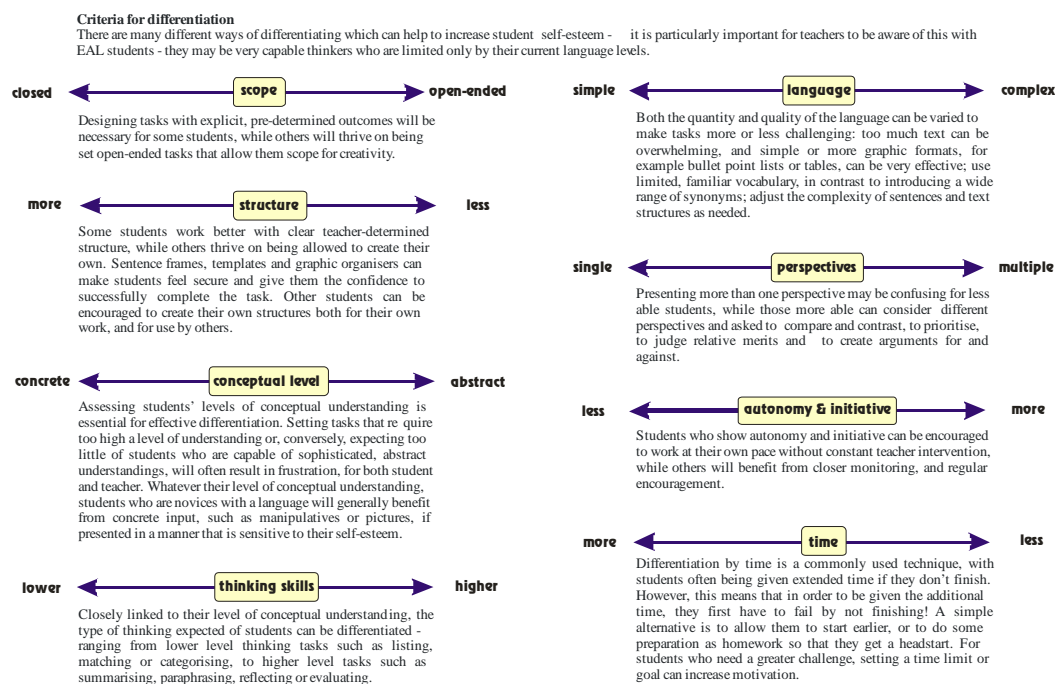


Fig. 47 Criteria for differentiated teaching (Snowball 2004)

Tomlinson, widely regarded as an authority on the subject, has defined a set of beliefs and principles as a basis for teaching in a differentiated classroom (2000), outlined below together with my own comments on the practical implications for teachers:

- 'Students who are the same age differ in their readiness to learn, their interests, their styles of learning, their experiences, and their life circumstances. Such differences ...are significant enough to make a major impact on what students need to learn, the pace at which they need to learn it, and the support they need from teachers and others to learn it well.'

Effective differentiation is therefore flexible and adaptable – as student needs change, so do teaching and assessment. Groupings are not fixed, so individual students do not become identified as members of top, bottom, fast or slow groups. Groups may be homogeneous or heterogeneous, teacher-dictated or student-chosen, depending on the task.

- 'Students will learn best when supportive adults push them slightly beyond where they can work without assistance.'

Effective differentiation therefore relies on effective pre-assessment and involves self-awareness and self-determination on the part of students. Learning needs are explicitly and constructively discussed, and teaching is focused on agreed goals, for which both students and teachers are held accountable.

- 'Students will learn best when learning opportunities are natural and when they can make a connection between the curriculum and their interests and life experiences.'

Effective differentiation therefore takes place throughout the learning process, in the planning, teaching and assessment stages, and involves modifications of what we want students to learn (content), how they learn (activities and classroom environment) and how they show what they've learned (assessments and outcomes).

- 'Students are more effective learners when classrooms and schools create a sense of community in which students feel significant and respected.'

Effective differentiation therefore boosts student self-esteem. Teachers must support, encourage and challenge each student to optimise his or her abilities.

Yet as Tomlinson emphasises, differentiation, by definition, cannot be approached in a standardised way – it is different for every school, every classroom, every teacher, and ultimately, for every student. 'Differentiated instruction has as many faces as it has practitioners and as many outcomes as there are learners' (Pettig 2000). The ability to apply these beliefs and principles to planning, teaching and assessment that recognises student learning differences is a fundamental and challenging requirement for international teachers.

Domain III: Multiculturalism

'So who does the world really belong to? Not to any particular race or any particular country. More than at any other time in history it belongs to all those who want to make a place for themselves in it' (Maalouf 2001, cited in Lewis 2005).

Domain III addresses the need for international teachers to understand the nature and key characteristics of culture and to use strategies that facilitate the achievement of students from diverse cultural groups. This need was emphasised by the Chapter 4 survey data, with *cultural sensitivity* rated as an essential trait for international teachers, and *multiculturalism* highlighted by teachers themselves as the most important aspect of training needed. The literature on traits of effective teachers concurs, with cultural knowledge, skills and understandings emphasised explicitly in all four of the global teacher models examined in Chapter 4 (Pike and Selby 1988; Merryfield 1995; Clough and Holden 1996; Young and Commins 2002).

Cultural diversity can be considered a school's richest, most accessible resource in internationalising both what and how we teach. Yet too often the results are superficial, with attention paid only to the immediately visible aspects of culture, ignoring the more important subsurface aspects that are fundamental to a real understanding of a culture (the etic and emic referred to in Fennes and Hapgood's iceberg model presented in Chapter 2). International teachers must go beyond the superficial. 'In order to teach in a multicultural society we must be willing to enter into someone else's reality...not just 'learning about', which is a passive and one-way process that denies the heartbeat of a culture...' (Graves 1996 p. 13-14). 'When educators view multicultural education as the study of the "others", it is marginalized and held apart from mainstream education reform' (Banks 1998). Like Ghandi (cited in Alyusef 2006), they must aim to have 'the cultures of all the lands blown about (their classrooms) as freely as possible, but refuse to be blown off (their) feet by any'. Immersed in a multicultural setting themselves, and therefore learning at both a personal, emotional level, as well as a professional, cognitive level, they have a multi-faceted challenge:

(i) they must become more knowledgeable about individual cultures, especially those which are represented in their class, school and local community but they must carefully avoid focusing on groups in ways that patronise or reinforce stereotypes; they must go beyond simply appreciating food and music or sharing celebrations, to look beneath the surface at some of the many aspects of culture identified by Fennes and Hapgood (detailed in Chapter 2).

(ii) from this increased knowledge base of specific cultures, they must develop deeper, generic understandings of the nature of culture, its characteristics, its development and its effects;

(iii) from these deeper understandings, they must create practical classroom applications that help students acquire specific knowledge and develop their own understandings and that contribute to their personal and social education.

International teachers not only face this multi-faceted challenge, but they do so from a multi-level base of cultural influences. Joslin (2002) talks about the impact on both her work and non-work environment of several distinct but interacting influences:

- her own cultural heritage
- her previous work cultures
- her home country professional culture
- her current school's organizational culture
- the international school's mission
- the local expatriate community culture
- the host nation's cultures and subcultures
- the regional cultures and subcultures.

Each of these individually is the result of an interaction of factors, and in addition each is further influenced by its situation within the overall global context. The conclusion that culture is a complex and dynamic synthesis of such factors, highlights the challenge for international teachers.

In a typical international school, teachers will interact simultaneously with several different cultures each day, and despite good intentions, such contact can be frustrating and fraught with misunderstanding. Bennet (1998, p.1) highlights several key questions each of which would make a valuable discussion focus in any international school staff meeting or inservice workshop: How do people understand one another when they do not share a common cultural experience? What kind of communication is needed by a pluralistic society to be both culturally diverse and unified in common goals? How does communication contribute to creating a climate of respect, not just tolerance, for diversity? As discussed in Chapter 2, there are many potential barriers to effective communication (Barna1998), barriers that international teachers need to be aware of and prepared for themselves, as well as teaching students how to deal with them.

Communication is often the most acute cultural issue facing schools but the range of ongoing dilemmas for schools and teachers is wide: reconciling curriculum and assessment with diverse parental expectations, matching pedagogical approaches with diverse student needs, and encouraging attitudes and behaviours that may contrast with home culture expectations are issues that are central to the development of any multicultural school or classroom.

Bennett (1998) points out that ‘historically humans have used a limited repertoire of strategies for dealing with people who are different: avoidance (keep away from them), conversion (make them similar to us) or destruction (get rid of them)’. Clearly it is the expectation that international teachers will deal with such issues more positively, developing the ‘intercultural-literacy’ proposed by Meyer (1991), Heyward (2002) and others, and acting as role models in developing such competencies in students. Meyer’s model outlines three levels of intercultural competency, moving from ‘monocultural’ (awareness only of one’s own culture) through ‘intercultural’ (awareness of other cultures) to ‘transcultural’ (an understanding and appreciation of culture that transcends any one individual culture). Though simple, such a model can be used as a rubric by teachers aiming to develop a structured programme. Heyward’s model, drawing on a wide range of earlier models of cultural adjustment, expands Meyer’s three categories into five, identifying three levels of monocultural awareness, before moving into intercultural and transcultural, and providing a detailed framework for self-evaluation and programme development. If, as Heyward claims, intercultural literacy is ‘a crucial literacy for international students – if they are to be prepared for success in a globalized world... and...a crucial element in the creation of a safe, sustainable and just global community’, then it follows that it is equally crucial for the teachers of such students to develop the same literacy: ‘the understandings, competencies, attitudes, language proficiencies, participation and identities necessary for successful cross-cultural engagement...and...for successful living and working in a cross-cultural or pluralist setting’.

It must be borne in mind, however, that proximity is not enough. ‘The cross-cultural experience is...a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for the development of intercultural literacy’ (Heyward 2002, p.19) and active teaching in the areas identified is deemed essential, as is taking advantage of the local culture: ‘the greatest cultural resource for international schools...is not their own international multicultural mix of dislocated students and faculty, although this too is valuable, but rather the deep, rich, dynamic and diverse cultures of their host environment.’ (Heyward 2002, p.26) To be most effective therefore, in addition to dealing with the cultural demands within the school, international teachers also need to be prepared to immerse themselves in the culture of the local community and host country. Teaching internationally offers wonderful opportunities to experience different cultures firsthand and in some depth, and indeed this is what draws many people to this sector of education, but sadly, teachers’ lack of preparation, and therefore unrealistic expectations, can limit or even ruin the experience. Teachers who have developed a degree of inter-cultural literacy, and who have ‘the background required to ‘read’ a second culture, to interpret its symbols and negotiate its meanings in a practical day-to-day context’ (Heyward 2002, p. 10), will be better prepared to contribute to, and benefit from, their international experience, both professionally and personally.

With this in mind, it is relevant to emphasise the importance of ‘open-mindedness’, identified in survey results in chapter 4 as one of the most important traits for effective international teachers. Being *open to new ideas and multiple perspectives* is essential to avoid a further stumbling block to effective intercultural communication – one that is implicit within Barna’s list, but that teachers need to be explicitly aware of: that of perceived cultural dominance. Perceptions of superiority and inferiority – of a cultural pecking-order of sorts – exist in most cross-cultural exchanges and can create significant problems, particularly when visitors perceive their culture as being superior to that of the host country. To a certain extent this is a natural and temporary part of the

transition process discussed later in this chapter, but unfortunately it is too often an attitude that persists with international teachers throughout their careers.

As the key focus of their development of intercultural literacy, international teachers must be concerned with the cultural issues that face their students. These range from broad fundamental concerns of cultural identity to specific practical problems such as class placement. Maintaining one's cultural identity while immersed in another culture can be a challenge, especially over an extended period of time, and from extensive personal experience in international schools, I have found a wide range of reactions to the challenge. While some families welcome the effects the other culture has on their own, others try to avoid such effects by creating a protective bubble around themselves. Such is the complexity and dynamic nature of culture that, whichever approach families take, some impact is inevitable. The situation for international students is further complicated as they are often immersed, not only in one new culture, but in two very different cultures simultaneously: the culture of the host country, and the culture of the school, which as we have already discussed, is itself often a conglomerate of the multiple cultures of its community members.

While contrasts with the host country culture may affect teachers as much as they affect students, within the school itself there may be fewer differences, as many teachers choose to specialise, moving amongst schools with similar organisational styles or curricular frameworks (for example, British schools, IBO schools), so limiting the degree of change to which they are exposed.

For students, however, the contrasts are often much starker, and may involve home-school differences in values and practices that can be the source of significant stress. For example, students from a cultural background where teachers are revered as infallible experts may have difficulty adjusting to expectations of student initiative and questioning, while students whose culture encourages comparison and competition with others may be less likely to understand an emphasis on working at their own pace or in cooperative groups. Communities that regard student difficulties in school as shameful may refuse offers of diagnosis and extra learning support. Differential gender considerations, theories of learning and teaching, beliefs about behaviour and discipline, attitudes to time...the list goes on and includes many of the cultural elements highlighted by Fennes and Hapgood (1997) as 'emic', or out of conscious awareness. Even the seemingly simple question of student age can become a source of tension in an intercultural context: while international schools typically calculate age from the date of birth, some cultures calculate from the date of conception. Having teachers insist that you are one year younger than you think you are can be very distressing for a student, and can create potential administrative chaos with class placements.

Despite the challenges and potential traumas, from their research with international students, Hayden and Wong (1997) concluded that global awareness and an international outlook generally enhance one's understanding of one's own culture and reinforce one's identity, rather than in any sense detracting from it. Having a sound understanding of such fundamental concepts, as well as appreciating the range of parental apprehensions and challenges, is essential for teachers aiming to support students developing and valuing their own cultural identities within the context of being enriched by contact with the cultures of others. Cortes (1994) refers to this optimal process of cultural development as 'acculturation', an additive process of adapting to another culture, as distinct from 'assimilation', a subtractive process of adopting another culture in place of your own, and Richardson (1996) defines this further as helping

students to develop ‘a sense of personal, ethnic and cultural identity which has three separate but interacting components:

- confident, strong and self-affirming, as distinct from uncertain, ashamed or insecure;
- open to change, choice and development, as distinct from being dogmatic, rigid and opinionated;
- receptive and generous towards other identities, and prepared to learn from them, as distinct from feeling threatened and hostile, and wishing to exclude or to be separate.’

These echo many of the characteristics of internationally-minded students outlined in this and previous chapters, and again emphasise the underlying challenge for international teachers. Encountering new cultures often particularly highlights those elements that are significantly different from our own, and much work on culture focuses on cultural differences and potential dissonances (for example, Allan, Bennett, Fennes and Hapgood, Hofstede, Kondo and Willis) and the challenges of dealing with them. While Hofstede, considered by many to be one of the most eminent modern sociologists, has certainly created controversy with his *five cultural dimensions* detailed in Chapter 2, familiarity with such works could give international teachers valuable insights into how and why cultures differ.

The real challenge for international teachers however is to highlight the similarities between cultures as well as the differences, and to use both as learning opportunities. Later in this chapter we will focus on how teachers can internationalise both what and how they teach, integrating international perspectives across the curriculum and through their teaching practices. Elements of culture are an essential aspect of this, and, as emphasised earlier in this section, teachers will need to include explicit teaching about specific cultures (especially about those that are represented within the class, school and local communities) and about the nature and importance of culture generally, as well as about the controversial issues that arise within multicultural communities. Teaching about cultures and concepts that are unfamiliar adds a further level of challenge for international teachers, and it is clear that teachers cannot be knowledgeable about every culture represented in class, school or local communities. Nor need they be. The communities themselves however are a prime resource, and teachers should provide the framework for parents, community members and students themselves to share their experiences and perspectives firsthand.

A 2004 MORI poll conducted in England revealed that 89% of young people (aged 11-16) get their information about other cultures (especially developing countries) from TV, 66% from newspapers, and 42% from the internet (Oxfam 2006b). One of a teacher’s key roles is to present students with a wider range and better balance of perspectives, and the skills to critically assess information given, recognise and challenge bias and stereotypes, and ultimately to form their own well-considered, independent opinions. ‘A new type of person whose orientation and view of the world profoundly transcends his or her indigenous culture is developing from the complex of social, political, economic, and educational interactions of our time. The various conceptions of an “international”, “transcultural”, “multicultural”, or “intercultural” individual have each been used with varying degrees of explanation or descriptive utility. Essentially, they all attempt to define someone whose horizons extend significantly beyond his or her own culture.’ (Adler 1998)

Heyward (2002, p28) provides an apt conclusion for this section, by imploring schools not only to show awareness of these issues but to do something about them: 'Any programme to address the issue of intercultural literacy in an international school could therefore profitably commence with professional development and intercultural training for teachers and staff, followed by the development of school-based responses in curriculum and the broader social-cultural structuring of the school, and then with parent-education programmes.'

Domain IV: Teaching in multilingual classrooms

In multilingual classrooms, where students, individually and as a group, speak more than one language, teachers are frequently responsible for students with whom they do not share a common language. This domain addresses the need for international teachers to value students' multilingual abilities and to understand the processes involved in language acquisition and development in the first and subsequent languages. This means not only encouraging students to use all their languages for personal, social and academic reasons, but also purposefully planning and implementing differentiated learning experiences and assessment strategies appropriate to students' individual language profiles.

In the survey data presented in Chapter 4, this domain was poorly supported relative to other domains, although still more than 90% of teachers felt it to be an important aspect of training. Similarly in the literature on traits of effective teachers, dealing with multilingualism was not explicitly highlighted, although it may well be included implicitly in multicultural issues. My own experience, however, is that it is, in many respects, the most important issue for international teachers, and as such, warrants substantial focus within teacher education.

As shown in Chapter 2, language diversity is common in most education systems worldwide and for the majority of the world, multilingualism is a practical daily reality. It is also the case that the world's language landscape is constantly changing. A typical international school classroom is a microcosm of this complex global linguistic picture and it would seem reasonable to argue that the ideal is to have multilingual students taught by teachers who are themselves multilingual. Yet as we have seen from survey data in Chapter 4, the majority of international school teachers come from the UK, US, Australia and Canada, and ironically these countries (or certainly the first three) rank amongst those least likely to produce citizens with facility in more than one language. Informal estimates in the USA suggest that while more than 50% of its students are multilingual (a figure that is increasing rapidly) less than 20% of its teachers are, and less than 13% have specialised preparation for teaching in multilingual classrooms. While the actual figures differ, the pattern is similar in the UK and Australia, and in Canada too beyond the small bilingual areas of the east, and so it is clearly unrealistic for international schools to hire only multilingual teachers.

As a minimum expectation, therefore, international teachers must become familiar with, and keep abreast of developments in, world languages, together with a good understanding of how students acquire and develop language and how elements such as dialect, accent and syntactical structure of one language affect the learning of others. They must develop a repertoire of teaching strategies to facilitate this complex process, and, most importantly, they must have a positive attitude to multilingualism, and transmit that attitude to students and parents. 'With so many challenges confronting educators, language can sometimes appear to be an obstacle rather than a social and

academic asset. Just as language is not a liability, it's also not necessarily a luxury. In the United States, many people still see learning a foreign language as just that – a luxury – whereas the European Union holds multilingualism as a “basic necessity” for its citizen’ (Azzam 2005). Valuing the languages of students needs to begin outside the classroom, at an administrative level, as the language choices made by schools and parents may be crucial in terms of students’ future personal and professional options.

Although simple when considered in relation to the world picture, nonetheless most international schools offer a complex programme of languages. As demonstrated in Chapter 2, the organisation of schools’ language programmes is affected by a wide range of factors. Once decisions are made about which languages to offer, how and when they will be scheduled and who will take them, it is essential that this information is made explicit to parents and that the school gets a comprehensive picture of each student’s linguistic profile.

As also highlighted in Chapter 2, however, there are three major misconceptions about language learning that are commonly held by both parents and educators, regarding the differences between conversational and academic language levels (Cummins’ BICS and CALP 1994); the amount of time taken and the optimum age for learning languages; and the continued development of the mother-tongue. Such misconceptions significantly affect how schools and parents make decisions about language and can lead to major difficulties for students. Such misconceptions notwithstanding, schools must still organise their complex language programmes, balancing the requirements and challenges of the main languages of instruction, host country languages, foreign languages and mother-tongue languages, and clearly the situation would be improved if teachers themselves were better prepared for such complex language settings.

Of the seven domains of knowledge and skills identified, language seems to be the most widely addressed in teacher education, with many programmes including some form of multilingual awareness component. However, most of these are offered only as short-term electives that do not give the in-depth understandings that are needed and it is my experience that relatively few international teachers have an in-depth knowledge of their own or other languages (especially those from completely different language groups) while even fewer appreciate the complex web of factors affecting multilingual learners or have adequate practical strategies to support them.

A growing body of research highlights the broad range of cognitive, emotional, social and even economic benefits that learning another language bestows on students, not least, Seven hundred reasons for studying languages (Gallagher-Brett 2004). If these are not enough then schools would do well to take note of Article 5 of UNESCO Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity (UNESCO 2001) which states that, ‘All persons have (*therefore*) the right to express themselves and to create and disseminate their work in the language of their choice, and particularly in their mother-tongue’.

Such benefits and rights apply to each one of our students, and it is therefore contingent on international teachers to understand the issues and implications, and to ensure that students are advantaged, not disadvantaged, by their multilingualism.

Domain V: Transition

This domain addresses the need for international teachers to be sensitive to the difficulties transition can cause and to be skilled in handling personal stresses effectively as well as supporting students and parents.

As demonstrated earlier in this thesis, worldwide mobility is increasing rapidly, creating challenges for schools and teachers, not only in terms of the multicultural and multilingual diversity that accompanies such mobility, but also issues that arise from the transition itself, for example, seemingly simple feelings of homesickness that can represent more complex underlying problems. It is not uncommon for international schools to experience 20-30% student turnover each year, and teacher tenure averaging only 2-3 years, and in such circumstances, an understanding of the transition process and cultural relational patterns discussed in Chapter 2, can help international teachers be better prepared to deal with issues that arise, for themselves and for students and parents.

One of the key understandings that arise from such studies of transition is that stress is a temporary part of a predictable process, as illustrated, for example, through Pollock and Van Reken's model detailed in Chapter 2, which describes five distinct stages of transition: Involvement, Leaving, Transition, Entering and Reinvolvement. Chapter 4 survey data identified a wide range of factors that motivate teachers to become internationally mobile. Yet the vast majority of these factors are event-related and although anecdotal evidence from survey respondents offers some insight into the psychological motivations that underlie the decisions, this is a potentially fascinating area for further study: investigation of why, for example, teachers at the stage of 'Involvement' in the transition cycle, should decide to leave the comfort and familiarity of their current location? While it would be reasonable to assume that, on the first occasion, the decision might be made in blissful ignorance of the stress they will experience, many international teachers – the 'Globetrotters' described in chapter 4 - make it a lifelong series of transitions and as we have shown, the stress does not necessarily diminish with frequency (Powell 2001). Indeed, it seems that many international teachers are addicted to transition, perhaps the very comfort of the 'Involvement' stage generating discomfort and an urge to move on, demonstrated by the high proportion of survey respondents indicating 'an urge to travel' and 'a sense of adventure' as motives for becoming international teachers.

For the category of international teacher described in Chapter 4 as 'Settlers', it seems that the initial urge to move is overridden by other factors, for example, meeting a local partner. There is also anecdotal evidence that eventually even the most fervent transition-addicted international educators slow down and become more settled. While, as Powell points out, frequent relocations do not inure one against the stresses associated with the different stages of transition, it seems that the length of each stage changes with subsequent relocations: experienced globetrotters seem to speed up, and minimise, the negative aspects of the Leaving, Transition, Entering and Reinvolvement stages, moving more easily into, and spending more time in, the Involvement stage. Clearly, however, transition affects each individual differently, and each individual will react differently with each move.

As shown in Chapter 2, how students react to transition and its effects on their educational, personal and social development have been the subject of many studies, with diverse outcomes (for example, Useem 1992; Pollock and Van Reken 2001; Schuarzberg and Parenteau 2004; Fail 2007). Pollock and Van Reken comment that 'the

often paradoxical benefits and challenges of (*students'*) profiles are sometimes described as being like opposite sides of the same coin, but in reality they are more like the contrasting colored strands of thread woven together into a tapestry' (Pollock and Van Reken 2001, p. 78):

- Transition can help students become gregarious and confident in establishing relationships yet it can also mean they become introvert and avoid making lasting friendships.
- They develop a wider, more sophisticated view of the world, at a much earlier age, yet they may have no clear sense of national identity and may never have lived in the country whose passport they hold - indeed, the seemingly simple question, 'Where are you from?' can be impossible to answer for such students.
- They have the benefit of developing personal bonds with people and places around the world, and the increased pain this can cause when those people and places are harmed or disrupted.
- They have the opportunity to develop truly multicultural mindsets, yet have only a superficial (and often outdated) appreciation of their own culture, which may only become apparent if they return to the home country

Such 'cultural chameleons' make up a high proportion of international school students and adults, and it seems imperative, therefore, that international teachers understand the nature of transition and its effects, both positive and negative, in order to most effectively facilitate their own and students' mobility. However, neither the survey data nor literature seem to support this. The surveys on Traits of effective teachers and Training aspects, discussed in Chapter 4, showed that students, parents and teachers all rated transition as a relatively unimportant area, perhaps indicating the lack of awareness that Powell (2001) suggests often exacerbates the stress. Similarly, the literature on Traits of effective teachers examined throughout this thesis does not make explicit knowledge and skills relating to transition. Yet it remains my contention that this is an essential area of understanding for international teachers and one that will become increasingly important as worldwide population mobility continues.

It might be reasonable to expect that as the decision-makers in charge of their own destinies, parents and teachers would be less prone to transition stress. However, as Powell indicates (2001), adults typically take longer to adjust than children and it is well documented that even positive transitions are stressful. Carter (2004) identified 13 different types of stress involved with a typical family move to a new country, which, using Holmes and Rahe's Social Readjustment Scale, gave a cumulative rating of 311 on a scale of 100! Parents' transition difficulties may manifest themselves in an overly relaxed unconcerned attitude to education or in an intense hypercritical focus on the school or individual teachers. Non-working parents may feel particularly disorientated, and while schools are obviously not directly responsible for parents, the successful transition for students will inevitably be best facilitated by also offering support to parents. International teachers need to be able to handle parents firmly but sensitively, reassuring them and helping them too, to settle in. And last but not least, teachers themselves frequently suffer from similar indicators of transition stress. With the initial euphoria may also come disorientation and frustration at losing some degree of the control and independence they value, and the excitement of a new location and school may be swiftly replaced by reality awareness, disenchantment and even hostility. It is essential that teachers anticipate such feelings, recognise them when they occur and have in place support mechanisms to help them cope. Indeed, enlightened schools build in such mechanisms at an organisational level, and typically include a range of activities

for students, teachers and parents, such as those outlined below (Snowball 2002b and 2003).

Transition activities for students

Transition activities for students can begin before they even reach the school. Teachers can contact them as soon as they are enrolled, sending, for example, a welcome letter or postcard, emails from other students and class newsletters, as well as encouraging them to look at the school website and local 'what's on' and 'where to go' websites. For students who do not speak the school's main language of instruction it is very helpful if some of this initial contact can be in their own language, for example, using students and parents as translators or including multilingual sections on the website.

A few days before school starts, many schools organise orientation sessions just for new students, giving them a chance to see the school, the classrooms, meet the teachers and ask questions before the other students return. These sessions offer very important reassurance to students, who frequently have not visited the school before this, and who often have the perception that they will be the only new student. When school begins teachers must be prepared with name labels ready, classes and seats assigned so that students feel expected. Many teachers assign each new student a buddy, preferably who speaks the same language, who guides and assists during the first few days of unfamiliarity, and students may be encouraged to sit in 'language-alike' groups for lunch or to bring in something to share from their previous school or country. Some schools also organise more formal events such as a welcome assembly where new students are introduced or a special lunch with the principal or counsellor. It cannot be assumed that after the first few weeks, or once school routines are learned, that students have settled in. Teachers must remain vigilant of students' emotional states and social relationships, and transition issues should be addressed generically and explicitly as an ongoing and integral part of the curriculum, for example, through the use of literature to explore concepts such as home, mobility, loss and friendship (Walker 1998), (Rader and Harris Sittig 2003), which are so poignant for the students. Walker's wide range of literary examples all convey the disorientation and melancholy of the homesickness mentioned earlier in this section, and 'confirms that we...have a deep instinctive need for a home – something or somewhere to which we can belong, with which we can identify, which offers us stability and security.' Again, as mentioned, many international educators settle in an adopted country and make this their new home, while many others eventually return 'home' to the country of their birth (although as is illustrated in much of the literature, such returns are often fraught with difficulties and disillusionment.) For those global nomads who do not have a 'home' country to which they can return, many head for the country of their parent's birth, often as young adults to attend university. While many leave again after only a short stay, it is nonetheless a further illustration of Walker's 'deep instinctive need for a home'.

Powell reminds us that generally young children adapt to transition more easily than adults, perhaps because their concept of home and stability is less well-developed, or perhaps because it is simply tied to the presence of their parents (one teacher in a recent workshop on transition talked about the significance her own children had always placed on a particular huge family bed, which they insisted had to be transported with them to every new location). Yet, as Rader and Sittig urge, teachers should not underestimate its effects, nor the value of the use of literature to explore and comfort, not only for those who are leaving but also for those who are staying. This latter group

of students, who are losing not their home but their friends, are often just as deeply distressed, yet generally overlooked in schools' transition support.

Such is the mobility of international school populations, that teachers are often dealing with both ends of the transition process at once, and may simultaneously be settling students in while helping others prepare for leaving. Again, much can be done both by individual teachers and at a schoolwide level to ease this often traumatic time. Students may be unsettled by an imminent move before they are even consciously aware that the move is taking place. Parents will often delay telling children until a move is definite, but young children in particular may detect even subtle changes in parental emotions and interactions. Once a move is announced teachers can support students by helping them find out about the new location, and, as soon as it is known, the new school, and by encouraging them to make a list of things they would still like to do in the current location. Teachers must try to ensure that learning is maximised until the student actually leaves. It is common for students, parents and teachers themselves to 'give up' educationally, but for students who move frequently, this results cumulatively in too much lost time. Most teachers arrange class farewells – a small party, cards etc. – and, as for newly arrived students, many schools have more formal leaving ceremonies, that might include an assembly and, depending on their age, the opportunity for students to make a short farewell speech. An innovative and much-valued idea at the International School of Amsterdam, was to present each leaving student with a large wooden clog, engraved with their name and date, which classmates and teachers would sign. Once, while head of ISA, I visited a school in Rome, and unexpectedly met a grade 4 student who had left our school several years previously. Her teacher told me that the student was doing very well but that she had something to show me. She went to the student's desk and took out her ISA clog, which she said the student had kept with her at all times since arriving at the school. Such stories, at the same time both inspiring and heartwrenching, abound in the literature on transition (for example, Useem, Schaetti, Pollock and Van Reken) and in the anecdotes of most international educators.

Transition activities for teachers

Transition activities for teachers (often referred to as orientation or induction) vary in both quantity and quality from school to school, but commonly fall into three categories: familiarisation with the location, familiarisation with the school, and familiarisation with other staff members. These coincide with Lewis' categorisation of teachers' transition problems (cited in Hayden 2006) into cultural, professional and personal. Hayden emphasises the necessity of such transition support 'where the new recruit may be new not only to the school but also to the cultural mix of students, the curriculum offered, the country in which that school is located, and the first language of that country' (2006, p.82) and, drawing on a wide range of literature, she highlights six key features common to effective teacher induction:

1. it must begin early, as an integral part of the recruitment process
2. it must not only begin prior to arrival but also continue beyond the first few days of school as an integral part of ongoing professional development
3. it should recognise the different needs of different individuals and groups and the limitations of the typical 'one-size-fits-all' model
4. it should be tailored to the school's specific situation
5. it should draw on expertise from across the school
6. it should include a carefully-chosen mentor or buddy to provide personal support at a personal level

Ideally then, as was suggested for students, the best teacher orientation programmes start early, with regular communication from when the teacher is hired to when they begin the new job, including information on the local community (housing, banking, shopping, leisure amenities); the school (curriculum and assessment, specific teaching assignments, resources, professional expectations); and the initial schedule of arrangements. Many schools ensure that teachers who are new to the country are met when they first arrive, taken to their accommodation and shown the local area, often by the assigned buddy. Accommodation arrangements vary greatly and range from being provided and paid for by the school, to being left totally up to individual teachers to find for themselves. Some schools even provide a start-up pack that includes food, transportation tickets, local money, maps and local information guides.

The formal part of an induction programme typically lasts between two and five days, and includes the cultural, professional and personal categories of support referred to above. Cultural activities might include the completion of entry formalities such as visas and residency permits; information sessions on host country culture; language lessons; and visits to local places of interest (for example, a dhow trip or desert safari in Qatar; a bicycle tour or canal cruise in Amsterdam). Professional activities might include workshops on curriculum and pedagogy; sessions on school policies and procedures; and classroom preparation time. Personal activities might include setting up bank and telephone accounts; finding shops and leisure facilities; and organising transportation. These are only a few examples of the numerous items that need attention during the transition period, each of which can go more or less smoothly, and therefore cause more or less stress.

Transition activities for parents

Although schools often hold information evenings at the start of each school year, specific activities just for parents who are new to the school are less common. Rather than being a formal part of a school induction programme, such activities are more typically organised by other parents, for example through a parents' association, and might include welcome telephone calls; an orientation guide including details of shops, services, leisure facilities etc.; cultural visits to places of interest; and social events for parents to get to know one another. The latter is of paramount importance to non-working parents, for while students are socialising with new classmates, teachers with new colleagues, and working parents with new workmates, non-working parents are often very isolated, increasing the transition stress.

Transition teams

It must be remembered that all newcomers need this transition support whenever they arrive. Many schools that provide excellent start of year orientation programmes for students, teachers and parents do little or nothing for those who arrive mid-year. One initiative that can overcome this is the creation of transition support teams, whose main purpose is to ease the process of transition for all members of the school community. Such teams, which are becoming increasingly common, particularly amongst larger international schools that have the resources to do so, typically involve teachers, heads, counsellors, admissions personnel, parents and students and, less commonly or on a more ad hoc basis, local transition specialists, educational psychologists and relocation agents. Schaetti (2004), a strong advocate of such teams, suggests that they may:

- *consolidate transition efforts* – focusing responsibility, increasing consistency and ensuring a more systematic approach year-round not only at the beginning and end of the school year
- *increase transition expertise* – both by acting as a primary resource and by offering training to increase the levels of expertise of other community members
- *provide transition education* – facilitating workshops or curriculum modifications to address issues such as stress management, cultural identity and conflict resolution
- *promote transition activities* – for those arriving and departing, and for those non-transient students who are constantly being left behind

Whether a school has a team or an individual responsible, it is clear that the successful management of the multitude of transitions common to many international schools is of fundamental importance. Helping students, parents and teachers to settle in and become effective members of the school community as quickly and as smoothly as possible should be the aim of every school, and by ensuring that international teachers have the appropriate knowledge and skills, schools will be better able to achieve this aim.

Domain VI: Internationalising Curricula

This domain addresses the need for international teachers to enrich both what and how they teach by, for example:

- becoming familiar with existing international curricula;
- creating new internationally-orientated subject areas;
- internationalising existing subject areas and units of work
- demanding that students seek and consider multiple perspectives
- critically assessing resources to avoid bias and stereotyping
- utilising firsthand sources, including the experience of students and parents, to present authentic perspectives and opinions whenever possible
- using technology to access up to date information and firsthand resources

(Snowball 2007)

Internationalising WHAT we teach

We have stated earlier that international education includes schools that are international in name and schools that are international in nature, and the same can be said of curricula: there are international curricula specifically designed for an international context and internationalised curricula modified to promote an international orientation. While the former has tended to be used more in international schools and the latter in national schools, there is an increasing blurring of the lines, with many national schools adopting international curricula such as the International Baccalaureate Programmes, and many international schools using modified national curricula.

Whatever the category of curriculum, it is my strong contention that to be considered truly international, it must include explicit international perspectives. As was demonstrated in Chapter 2, there are considerable barriers to effective internationalising of curricula, and even when international perspectives are explicitly stated, there is no guarantee that they will be integrated into classroom practice. Indeed, implementation is often left to individual teachers, and is largely dependent on the extent of their own international-mindedness, experience and access to appropriate resources. While

international teachers should therefore be familiar with well-established programmes such as those described in Chapter 2, we are reminded by Pike and Selby (1988) that 'internationalising curriculum is about nurturing a state of mind in teachers'. The key skill required is the ability to internationalise whether or not working within a purposely-designed curriculum framework.

Subject knowledge with a world view was one of the traits of effective teachers considered in the survey data detailed in Chapter 4. While it was rated as relatively unimportant by teachers, more than 40% of students and parents rated it as one of the three most important traits, and it features strongly in most of the models of effective teachers examined in Chapter 4 (Shulman 1986; Pike and Selby 1988; Merryfield 1995; Clough and Holden 1996; Young and Commins 2002). Indeed, Clough and Holden devote a whole section of global teacher competencies to 'Appreciation of subject knowledge' including such aspects as: 'applying own subject knowledge to the themes of citizenship, environment and economics; sensitivity to the need to raise awareness of global issues in all subjects; understanding that possibilities to incorporate a global dimension can be found in all subjects; and provision of a wide range of teaching/learning materials which reflect this'. The relatively low rating by teachers might be cause for concern, but in the subsequent survey rating the importance of different aspects of training, more than 90% of the teachers surveyed considered it to be important.

Lists of world knowledge abound in the literature (Pike and Selby 1988; Merryfield 1995; Young and Commins 2002) and form an important base for internationalising curriculum. Yet Graves (1996, p.13) argues strongly that internationalising cannot only be knowledge based: 'There is little History or Geography or Literature in mainstream education that tells our stories in our own voices, our own words. Our art, our songs and struggles are quarantined in 'ethnicity', our ancestors robbed of vibrancy and power and allocated no more than a few quotations, even though there is considerable first-hand material in print and available.' What is needed, then, is internationalising of the whole curriculum: not only the subjects taught through the academic curriculum, but also the personal, educational and vocational guidance of the pastoral curriculum, and the implicit messages given and values transmitted by the hidden curriculum (Lawton 1978). Whether or not working within an international curricula framework, the ability to internationalise units of work is a key skill for international teachers.

'Our difficulties belong to the future, but our means of solving them, and our teaching, belong to the past...it's a problem of methodology and mindset.'

(Rischar, 2002)

Internationalising HOW we teach

It is clear that internationalising what we teach, i.e. adapting the content of the curriculum, is important, but not enough: whether schools adopt a specific international framework; create standalone international strands; or integrate international perspectives across the curriculum, the success or failure of their internationalising will rest on the mindset of the teachers, and their ability and willingness to internationalise units of work. This involves teachers presenting students with a range of perspectives which they synthesise in order to construct their own opinion. As Hill (2000) suggests, it also requires teachers to guide them to look for deeper understandings beyond the immediate surface knowledge level presented, considering relationships such as similarities, differences, causes and effects. Underlying this is the need to develop

students' ability to think critically, creatively and compassionately, using key questions such as What does this really mean? What are the ways of looking at this? and How will this affect others? (Snowball 2005)

If teachers' mindsets are the key to successful internationalising of curricula, then resources are their main tool. It is essential that teachers are skilled in critically assessing materials to avoid bias and stereotyping, utilising firsthand sources, including the experience of students and parents, to present authentic perspectives and opinions whenever possible. Using a range of resources as a means of presenting multiple perspectives is one of the simplest and most effective ways for teachers themselves to internationalise any curriculum, although budget limitations, access restrictions, quality control issues and the need for cultural sensitivity may still create challenges. Daniels (2002) cautions that in his experience of trying to develop new, multi-perspective textbooks in places of conflict, for example, the finally-agreed acceptable-to-all-text can end up 'so boring the kids would fall asleep over it'. Better then to present different perspectives separately and have students ask questions, compare and contrast, analyse, consider different hypotheses, and in doing so, develop their own.

Technology gives access to resources further afield and was included as one of the traits deemed essential for effective international teachers in the survey data presented in Chapter 4. In contrast to Cohen, Manion and Morrison's (1996) emphasis on its importance, however, the survey results showed that knowledge and skills in *information and communication technology* (ICT) was considered to be of high importance by only one or two respondents. Yet it remains my contention that, at two different levels, it seems to be a valuable tool in internationalising curriculum. Firstly, technology gives instant access to up-to-date information, firsthand sources and multiple perspectives, through services such as email, internet, pod-casting and video-conferencing. It must be borne in mind however, that it also makes students' application of critical thinking skills absolutely essential, in order to process and evaluate the vast amounts of information available. Secondly, such information facilitates international teachers becoming knowledgeable in all the other areas identified by the survey traits, offering a relatively accessible form of professional development, even for those in international schools in more remote geographical locations.

Informal discussions with survey respondents indicated that action or service components, such as those included in the IBO curricula, and commonly part of most schools' programmes, are seen as a central component of internationalising both what and how we teach. While such components are valuable in promoting personal and social development and developing compassionate thinking, Hobson and Carroll (2000) advise that care must be taken to avoid problems such as:

- a colonial top-down approach – what needs doing is pre-determined by the doer, rather than, with the receiver, collaboratively determining the nature of the help to be given
- reinforcing stereotypes – often carried out in isolation rather than in cooperation with the locals, often based on superficial understanding of the problem – surface awareness of the need without in-depth understanding of the causes
- incoherent, fragmented projects with too much reliance on committed individuals – the most effective projects are an ongoing and integral part of the school-wide programme
- resentment from students - on top of often rigorous academic demands action projects can often be regarded as, at best, optional, and at worst, interfering with the 'real' education – this is countered to some extent by a growing expectation

from universities that students show evidence of substantial participation in community service projects

- indifferent or even negative attitudes from parents – at best many parents do not see the point of community service action and at worst they may actively object to their children participating, if it means coming into direct contact with those who live in poverty, disease or crime – realistically, most parents choose international education for non-altruistic reasons, and, while they may not directly disagree with them, fail to see the ideals of international understanding as a significant component of a child's education
- logistical difficulties – places and people most in need of help may be inaccessible, making transporting students and materials difficult
- language difficulties – pursuing projects within local communities or even further afield can be hindered by language limitations – even though most international schools teach the host-country language to some extent, it is often not adequate to allow students to fully participate in local projects – similarly, those in the community who most need assistance often have their own language limitations, perhaps not even speaking the host-country language.

While clearly fraught with potential difficulties, such service is an invaluable part of any internationalised curriculum and classroom, and ultimately it is only through the actions of students that teachers will see the true results of their learning.

So to conclude, Domain VI: Internationalising curricula represents an essential synthesis of the domains presented so far. To respond to the unprecedented scale of change that society is undergoing and the issues the world is facing, international schools must do more than simply add in a new strand of world studies or a mission statement that refers to global citizenship: they must implement systems that institutionalise internationalism throughout the curriculum and help teachers make international perspectives both implicit and explicit in everything they do.

Domain VII: The reflective international teacher

This domain addresses the need for international teachers to be reflective practitioners who are open to new ideas and multiple perspectives, who continually evaluate the effects of their choices and actions on others and who actively seek out opportunities to grow professionally and extend their horizons.

Being *open to new ideas and multiple perspectives* was considered, overall, the most important trait of the fifteen traits presented in the surveys detailed in Chapter Four. It was rated as one of the top three traits by all the groups surveyed: teachers, school administrators, teacher trainers, parents and students. It also appeared in the top three chosen by educators regardless of the number of years teaching, number of years teaching overseas, or current school type. As was also reported in Chapter Four, international teachers consistently indicated that such a mindset (*a sense of adventure*) was one of the main factors in choosing to work outside their own country.

As we have seen subsequently however, teachers often take such decisions without knowing in detail what lies ahead, and the challenges of teaching in multicultural, multilingual settings and the stresses associated with transitions to new schools and locations can be great. As discussed, Powell (2001) attributes such stresses largely to a

temporary loss of efficacy, or effectiveness, whereby, in unfamiliar situations, teachers do not have the same degree of control over their personal and professional lives.

As described in Chapter 2, the professional growth of teachers has been the subject of much discussion, generating a variety of models (for example, Burch 1971; Perkins 1995; Snowball 2002c). Of particular interest is the concept of 'reflective consciousness' (Baume 2004), the metacognitive level that is pre-requisite for ongoing professional development, and therefore, the level for which international teachers must strive. The need for such conscious reflection clearly underlies Perkins' categorisation of teachers (1995) and he reminds us that 'the school that serves as a home for teachers' minds is much more likely to become one for students' minds as well' and developing an environment in which staff professional development is a natural, ongoing process is essential. Professional development benefits not only teachers themselves but the whole of the school community, demonstrating a seriousness of purpose and modelling lifelong learning. Teachers need to have their knowledge and skills validated, updated and extended, and be able to participate in stimulating professional discussion away from the interruptions and stresses of day-to-day school life. They need to connect with colleagues within and beyond the immediate school environment to build networks and partnerships and to reduce the feelings of isolation many international educators have. For international teachers, the 'throwing open the door' and collegial atmosphere that Perkins recommends can be worldwide as well as schoolwide, with opportunities for sharing of practice, both face to face with immediate colleagues, and remotely via electronic networks and forums with colleagues around the globe. Indeed, as indicated in earlier sections, proficiency in information and communication technology is considered essential for international teachers, and will become more so, as an increasing number of universities and other providers make professional development opportunities available online, and include digital classroom elements even as part of most face to face courses.

However willingly and enthusiastically teachers seek out opportunities, professional development in international settings also brings challenges. For example, exposure to different practices may cause teachers to question their own educational beliefs, a highly desirable practice for reflective practitioners, yet one that, nonetheless, can be disconcerting for those new to the profession or disorientated by transition to a new school or country. Teachers seeking to integrate international perspectives into what and how they teach are often in the minority within their schools or educational systems, and their efforts may need to be confined to their own classrooms. Further, as many of the issues involved are potentially controversial, parents and colleagues may be skeptical or directly critical. International teachers therefore need 'to locate themselves in a process of self-examination with regard to their own attitudes and values' (Graves 1996), and indeed Pantazi (2006) calls for explicit training in the skills of critical reflection to be included in the preparation of every teacher. Through participating in reflective practices such as case-study, problem-solving, reflective essays, deconstruction of theories, analysis of assumptions and mentoring, teachers can enhance their ability to understand issues, together with their own reactions to them.

As Hargreaves and Lo (2000) highlight, however, teachers face paradoxical expectations. Education is held responsible both for the problems of society and for its salvation; society requires that teachers be more reflective and effective yet overwhelms them with continuous, and often conflicting, demands that distract and detract from the business of teaching. As they struggle to cope with such demands, where is the time for

the thoughtful reflection and collaborative discussion that Perkins, Pantazi and others call for?

In addition to such ideological challenges, there is a further, very pragmatic challenge: in international settings and unfamiliar language environments relevant professional development opportunities may not be easily available. Most international schools have professional support systems, but anecdotal feedback from teachers suggests that they are often limited. That there are budgetary limitations is hardly surprising, but it seems that relatively few schools have policies or systems to guide professional development planning and decisions. An individual school's professional development therefore, may, for example, only include aspects required for accreditation or areas determined only by the head of school; it may include a personal allowance for each teacher to use as they wish or may only cover attendance at a specific conference; and it may or may not be tied to school or personal goals. As a result of such unsystematic provision, international teachers have to be highly self-reliant which may have the effect of making them more creative in finding alternatives to more traditional forms of professional development and therefore more actively reflective.

If schools are to be the 'homes for the mind' that Perkins envisages, then each must ensure that the ongoing professional development of its teachers is a high priority, with time allocated for the reflection that is deemed so important. Reflective questions, such as those that Kyriacou suggests (1998), detailed in Chapter 2, can help teachers critically and constructively focus their reflections and, as Pantazi (2006) emphasises, challenge their own assumptions. Pantazi argues strongly for a model of teacher effectiveness based on reflection, in which teachers' own experiences actively contribute to research, as opposed to a model based purely on technical competence, in which teachers are simply the recipients and applicants of research carried out by academics. She echoes Cohen, Manion and Morrison (1996) in emphasising the importance of the educational context in determining the criteria for teacher success, and highlights *reflection*, *adaptability*, *pedagogical awareness* and the *ability to differentiate for diverse learning styles* as key factors – all factors clearly identified as important in the survey data presented in Chapter 4. Pantazi's further descriptions reveal two distinct types of reflection:

- (i) that which is proactive and purposefully, systematically planned, for example, teachers' regular Friday afternoon evaluation of the week, or monthly staff meeting reviews; and
- (ii) that which is reactive, spontaneous and unplanned, for example, in the 'critical incidents' described by Pantazi, where approaches or materials taken from one context and used in another provoke fierce negative reactions, causing teachers to question their assumptions and, subsequently, amend their practice.

So, in summarising the case for Domain VII, it is clear that, while skills of reflection are to be encouraged for all teachers, they are essential for international teachers who are often isolated from structured professional development systems. While schools must provide an appropriate environment, therefore, the fundamental responsibility lies with individual teachers. While the power of reflection is that it is in the hands of the individual, its greater power comes from structured, systematic application, and to ensure this, we must instil the habit of reflection in the mindsets of all teachers, helping them reach a level of 'reflective consciousness'.

The development of a model for international teacher preparation

Synthesised from the issues raised in Chapter 2, and the information on international teachers presented in Chapter 4, the first section of this chapter has described seven domains of knowledge and skills deemed essential for international teachers:

Domain I, International education in context, highlighted a rapidly growing sector of education and examined its nature, the parents whose lives generate the demand for it, the teachers who choose to work in it, and most importantly, the characteristics of the internationally-minded students it aims to develop;

Domain II, Student diversity, considered how those students are different and the ways in which teachers must adapt their teaching to meet the diverse needs those differences create;

Domain III, Multiculturalism, looked at the opportunities and challenges presented by the increasing range of cultures represented in schools, and emphasised the need for teachers not only to know about specific cultures, but also to develop both broad generic understandings about the nature of culture, and appreciation of the personal issues of cultural identity their students often face;

Domain IV, Multilingualism, developed this further, emphasising the key role teachers play in advising parents, dispelling myths, and organising programmes around the complex linguistic needs of international students;

Domain V, Transition, focused on the mobile populations of international schools, the potential stresses such mobility creates and the skills international teachers need to deal effectively with their own lives, as well as supporting students, parents and colleagues;

Domain VI, Internationalising curriculum, looked at how what we teach and how we teach it can be adapted to take account of all the previous factors that characterise international school populations, integrating multiple perspectives and critical thinking across subject areas and grade levels; and

Domain VII, The reflective international teacher, emphasised the personal responsibility of teachers to be open-minded, considered and purposeful in their pursuit of international ideals for their students.

Influenced by the increasing migration that accompanies continuing globalisation, each domain represents a set of complex issues that manifest themselves in individual schools, local communities and globally, and as such, could form a valuable part of any teacher education programme. This thesis has illustrated that inadequate preparation of international teachers is a contributory factor in these issues, often due both to lack of awareness of the need for preparation and lack of availability of appropriate education programmes. While I have acknowledged some encouraging examples of such programmes in each of the countries generating the most international teachers, I have also highlighted a need that cannot be met by individual teachers or schools. In Section II, therefore, I will propose a model that combines these seven domains of essential knowledge and skills into an inclusive and comprehensive system of preparing and certifying teachers for international schools.

The concept of international certification

The Conference of Internationally-Minded Schools, instigated in 1949 with support from UNESCO, was heralded as the first such meeting ever and is considered by some to be the first promoter of the concept of international certification, with its stated aim of furthering world peace and international understanding through education, and its focus on teacher education as a means of achieving that aim. Throughout its existence (1949-1969) it attracted support from national state and private schools, as well as international schools. For the past fifty years, UNESCO has continued to support

International Conferences on Education, often with a focus on teacher education for international-mindedness, for example, the Annual Seminar on Education for International Understanding in 1961 (UNESCO 1962), which focused on the need for trainee teachers to develop attitudes, psychological understanding and methodological skills conducive to education for international understanding. Despite UNESCO's ongoing commitment, their 'Teacher Training and Multiculturalism' project three decades later (Gagliardi 1995) highlighted how little had been done and how urgent the need had become across a range of countries worldwide.

Currently, for international schools at least, the concept of international certification is in a healthy state, with several initiatives now well established. The Putting it into Practice International Education Certificate (Snowball 1997b) and International Education Foundation Course (Snowball 2002a), launched in 2002, cover essential aspects of internationalism and serve a wide range of teachers: experienced international teachers who want to consolidate or enhance their knowledge, skills and understandings; teachers who are seeking their first international position; and teachers who intend to remain in a national system but who want to integrate international perspectives more thoroughly into what and how they teach. The European Council of International Schools' International Teacher Certificate (ECIS 2008), based on the content and format of the PiiP certificate, was launched in 2005 and is available to ECIS members with at least two years experience in an international school. The International Baccalaureate's Teacher Development Certificate (International Baccalaureate Organization 2008c), launched in 2007, offers three levels of certification to teachers working in, or preparing to work in, schools that offer the IBO programmes. Although primarily serving the international education sector, each of these three systems has established links with universities that could facilitate eventual transfer into national teacher education programmes.

While the development of these three systems within a relatively short period is encouraging, there are serious limitations. Both the IBO and ECIS certificates are exclusive, available only to teachers in their own schools; university credit associated with the three certificates is not always transferable to other universities, making the credit irrelevant or of limited use; and schools, educational authorities and recruitment agencies do not yet formally recognise or reward the certification. The argument for an inclusive, comprehensive system of preparing and certifying international teachers, seems compelling, yet in practical terms, the concept is still in its infancy.

A model of preparation and certification for international teachers

The proposed model addresses the main issues facing teachers in international education: issues discussed extensively in previous chapters, and synthesised in the first part of this chapter into seven domains of essential knowledge and skills for international teachers. The model is organised around the seven domains, each represented as a standard in internationalism to be achieved by international teachers. The proposed process starts with a common Foundation Course that gives an overview of the domains, followed by individual development of the Record of Achievement portfolio, documenting achievements in each of the standards.

Since the initial conception of a model of certification for international teachers (Snowball 1997b) it has generated interest and has already achieved some success in several different ways, while the ongoing research for this thesis has facilitated the detailed development of the model. A pilot version presented at the inaugural

conference of the Alliance for International Education (Snowball 2002a) was used, as noted above, as the base for the development of the ECIS International Teacher Certificate. A condensed form of the Foundation Course has been offered as a one-day ‘Becoming an International Educator’ workshop to teachers attending the Council of International Schools recruitment fairs, supporting teachers in gaining their first international school jobs. Elements of the Foundation Course have been offered as workshops to various international and national schools and the full Foundation Course will be offered to teachers in Melbourne, Australia in May 2009, with university credit available from two universities in England and Australia.

The model is presented in Figures 48, 49 and 50: Figure 48 illustrates the standards, together with the overall certification process; Figure 49 describes each stage of the process; and Figure 50 (parts a-d) details the professional Record of Achievement portfolio requirements in each of the standards.

International Education Certificate Process Flow Chart

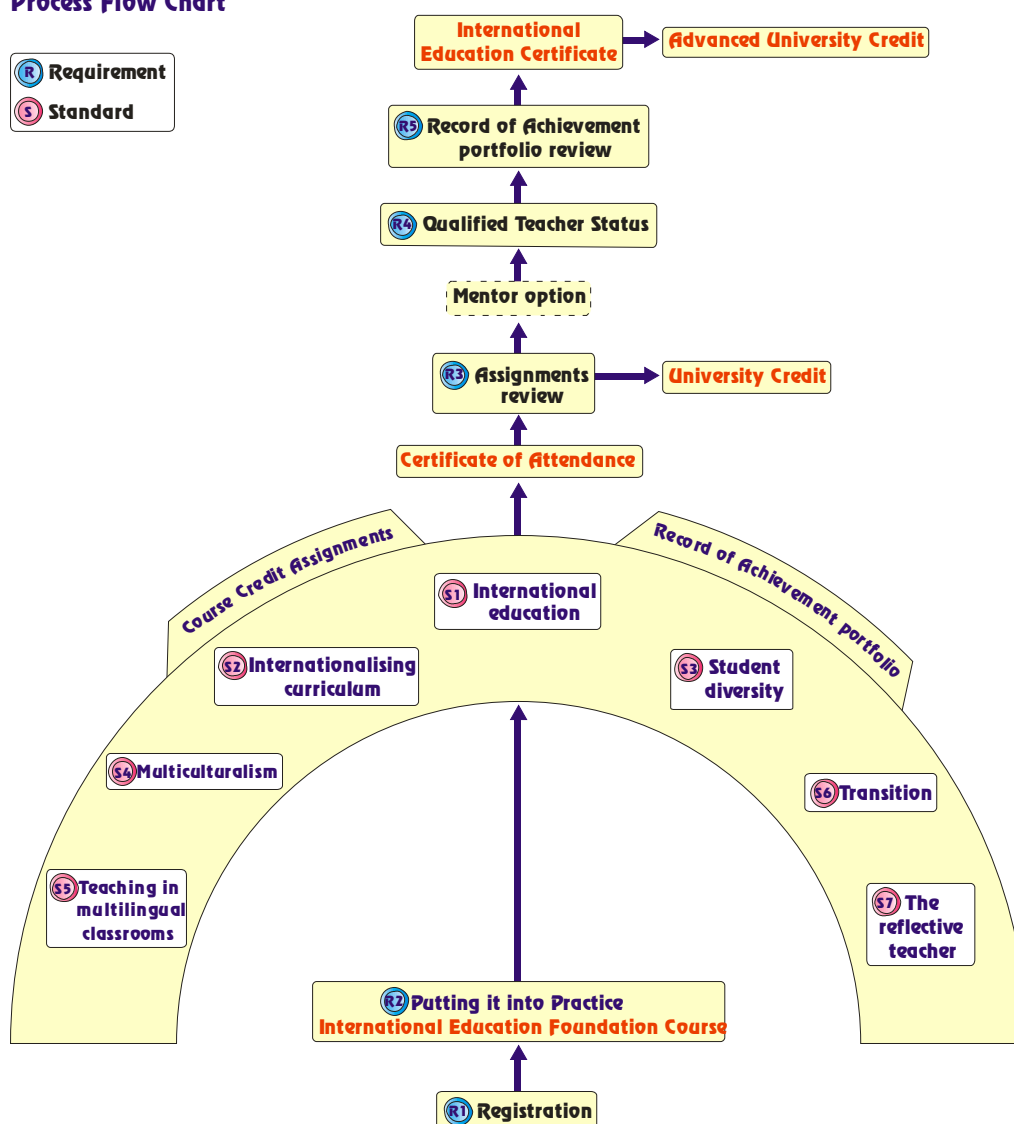


Fig. 48 International Education Certificate Process Flow Diagram

The International Education Certificate Process Stages
<p>Registration - candidates register for the International Education Foundation Course at their chosen level:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Level 1: Putting it into Practice Certificate of Attendance – this is awarded on completion of the Foundation Course • Level 2: University Credit – this is awarded on completion of the Foundation Course, together with a series of Course Credit Assignments • Level 3: Putting it into Practice International Education Certificate – this is available to those holding qualified teacher status and is awarded on completion of a Record of Achievement portfolio • Level 4: Advanced University Credit – this is available to teachers who are awarded the International Education Certificate
<p>Putting it into Practice International Education Foundation Course - this foundation course ensures a sound theoretical and practical base common to all candidates whatever their knowledge, skills and experience. It focuses on essential aspects of international education as detailed in the Standards in Internationalism. It also includes an overview and explanation of the certification process as well as initiating the Record of Achievement portfolio. On completion of the course a Putting it into Practice Certificate of Attendance will be awarded.</p>
<p>Course Credit Assignments - candidates who register for University Credit will be required to undertake a series of assignments before, during and after the Foundation Course. On successful completion of the assignments candidates will be eligible for University Credit.</p>
<p>Qualified Teacher Status - candidates who register for the Putting it into Practice International Education Certificate need to provide proof of their teaching status.</p>
<p>Record of Achievement portfolio - candidates who register for the International Education Certificate and University Advanced Credit will assemble a Record of Achievement portfolio throughout the certification process. This collection of carefully selected materials and reflections records achievement and growth in international education and provides evidence of how candidates meet each of the requirements and standards in internationalism. Chosen to represent the knowledge, skills and experience of exemplary internationally-minded practitioners, each standard includes a rationale and detailed 'in practice' criteria, each of which must be met. They can be met in different ways and possible examples of evidence are listed for each standard. The Record of Achievement portfolio will be initiated and explained during the Foundation Course and each candidate will create a personal development plan, including a proposed timeline for completion of the certification process. This may include the assignment of a mentor who acts as a guide throughout the process. On successful completion of the portfolio candidates will be awarded the Putting it into Practice International Education Certificate and, if registered, will be eligible for Advanced University Credit.</p>

Fig. 49 International Education Certificate Process Flow Diagram

Introduction

Candidates who register for the International Education Certificate and University Advanced Credit will assemble a Record of Achievement portfolio throughout the certification process. This collection of carefully selected materials and reflections records achievement and growth in international education and provides evidence of how candidates meet each of the requirements and standards in internationalism. Chosen to represent the knowledge, skills and experience of exemplary internationally-minded practitioners, each standard includes a rationale and detailed 'in practice' criteria, each of which must be met. They can be met in different ways and possible examples of evidence are listed for each standard. The Record of Achievement portfolio will be initiated and explained during the Foundation Course and each candidate will create a personal development plan, including a proposed timeline for completion of the certification process. This may include the assignment of a mentor who acts as a guide throughout the process. On successful completion of the portfolio candidates will be awarded the Putting it into Practice International Education Certificate and, if registered, University Advanced Credit.

Format

Candidates will normally submit the completed Record of Achievement portfolio in electronic format. The candidate should also maintain a physical Record of Achievement portfolio. The materials should be arranged in the following order:

- **R1)** Registration form & Resumé
- **R2)** Putting it into Practice International Education Foundation Course Certificate of Attendance
- **R3)** Course Credit Assignments
- **R4)** Proof of Qualified Teacher Status

- **S1)** International education in context
- **S2)** Student diversity
- **S3)** Multiculturalism
- **S4)** Teaching in multilingual classrooms
- **S5)** Transition
- **S6)** Internationalising curricula
- **S7)** The reflective international teacher

Within each of the standards S1 to S7, the format should be as follows:

- A. List of work sample/s
- B. Reflection - A description of the work sample/s selected and an explanation of how they show that you satisfy this standard in internationalism. The reflection should be limited to one A4 side.
- C. Actual work sample/s

All materials in the Record of Achievement portfolio must be clearly marked with:

- the Requirement or Standard referred to
- the candidate's name
- the item title

Each work sample can only be used to address one individual standard, therefore there will be a minimum of one work sample for each standard (ie. a minimum of seven work samples in the Record of Achievement portfolio). However, as each standard has multiple 'in-practice' indicators, candidates will often need to submit more than one work sample per standard.

Fig. 50a International Education Certificate Record of Achievement portfolio standards

<h3 style="margin: 0;">S1) International Education in Context</h3> <p>Standard</p> <p>The international teacher understands the international context of education, appreciating both the unique profile of each school and the diversity amongst education systems.</p> <p>In practice, the international teacher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) contributes to the ideal of developing globally-minded students b) appreciates the rewards of working in culturally and linguistically diverse settings c) contributes positively to meet the challenges raised by cultural and linguistic diversity d) participates in social and educational projects within the local and global communities e) is knowledgeable about educational systems and practices worldwide 		
met	not met	Comment:
<h3 style="margin: 0;">S2) Student diversity</h3> <p>Standard</p> <p>The international teacher is familiar with diverse student learning characteristics including stage theories of development, age-level profiles, and student variability in learning.</p> <p>In practice, the international teacher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) provides learning opportunities that are adapted to diverse learners and align with their intellectual, social and personal development levels b) demonstrates sensitivity to the multiple experiences of learners and addresses different learning and performance modes c) makes appropriate provisions (in terms of time and circumstances for work, tasks assigned, communication and response modes) for individual students who have particular learning differences or needs 		
met	not met	Comment:
<h3 style="margin: 0;">S3) Multiculturalism</h3> <p>Standard</p> <p>The international teacher uses strategies that facilitate the development of students from diverse cultural groups.</p> <p>In practice, the international teacher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) demonstrates the use of several different approaches to integrate content about cultural groups into the curriculum. b) helps students understand that knowledge is constructed, and is influenced by the biases, frames of reference and perspectives of individuals, groups and disciplines. c) proactively employs strategies to develop positive attitudes and ensure equal status of different cultural groups. 		
met	not met	Comment:

Fig. 50b International Education Certificate Record of Achievement portfolio standards

S4) Teaching in multilingual classrooms Standard The international teacher values the multilingual abilities of his/her students and understands the processes involved in language acquisition and development in the first and subsequent languages. In practice, the international teacher: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) encourages students to use their first language for personal, social and academic reasons b) plans and implements differentiated learning experiences and assessment strategies appropriate to students' language profiles 		
met	not met	Comment:
S5) Transition Standard The international teacher is sensitive to the difficulties transition can cause and, in addition to handling personal stresses effectively, is skilled in supporting students and parents. In practice, the international teacher: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) adapts easily to new situations b) systematically uses strategies to facilitate new students becoming as effective as possible as soon as possible c) offers additional support to new parents d) facilitates students' onward transfer 		
met	not met	Comment:
S6) Internationalising curricula Standard The international teacher actively seeks to enrich both what and how s/he teaches with multiple international perspectives, acting as a role model in developing internationally-minded students. In practice, the international teacher: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) is familiar with existing international curricula b) is able to internationalise units of work c) demands that students seek and consider multiple perspectives d) critically assesses resources to avoid bias and stereotyping e) utilises the experience of students and parents to present authentic perspectives and opinions 		
met	not met	Comment:

Fig. 50c International Education Certificate Record of Achievement portfolio standards

S7) The reflective international teacher

Standard

The international teacher is a reflective practitioner who continually evaluates the effects of his/her choices and actions on others (students, parents, and other professionals in the learning community) and who actively seeks out opportunities to grow professionally.

In practice, the international teacher:

- a) uses classroom observation, information about students, and research as sources for evaluating the outcomes of teaching and learning and as a basis for experimenting with, reflecting on, and revising practice.
- b) seeks out professional literature, colleagues, and other resources to support his/her own development as a learner and a teacher.
- c) draws upon colleagues within the school and other professional arenas worldwide as supports for reflection, problem-solving and new ideas, actively sharing experiences and seeking and giving feedback.
- d) regularly participates in professional development activities, including action research, to improve practice.

met	not met	Comment:

Fig. 50d International Education Certificate Record of Achievement portfolio standards

In summary then, this chapter represents a synthesis of the literature and survey data on seven key issues in international education and seven corresponding domains of knowledge and skills deemed essential for international teachers. Together with extensive anecdotal evidence gathered during my years in the international school context, this has been used to develop a model of preparation and certification tailored for international teachers. It has been amply demonstrated throughout, however, that the need for teacher education with an international perspective is widespread, and certainly not confined to international schools. Given the increasing levels of commitment to internationalising education that are apparent worldwide (for example, England, USA, Australia, Canada, China and Qatar, amongst others), it seems feasible that such a model could have validity beyond the international education sector, and it is hoped that the initial university recognition already gained for the model will facilitate this further step within national systems of teacher education also.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

The main findings of the research

The world's populations are increasingly mobile, multilingual and interconnected and as a consequence, both the pragmatic and ideological demands for international education are growing, and with them, the demand for international teachers. This research has highlighted how these circumstances are exacerbating several key issues facing teachers in national and international schools, and how, despite government and organisational initiatives to internationalise curriculum, teacher education programmes still lag behind and fail to provide the preparation teachers need.

International teachers

Although a sector of growing importance, international education generates a very small proportion of the literature. Literature specifically relating to international teachers is equally limited and this research has purposefully focused on them as the key resource in internationalising education, identifying some of the factors that motivate them to teach overseas, as well as highlighting traits deemed important for them to be most effective. In describing some of the characteristics of international schools early in the thesis, emphasis was placed on their ideological commitment to developing internationally-minded students and the qualities that this might lead them to seek in their teachers. It is now my conclusion that, not only might international schools find specific qualities desirable in their teachers, but that such qualities are absolutely essential if schools are to undertake such a commitment successfully.

This research has tried to extend understandings about international education and international schools by focusing on their key resource: teachers. It was found that international teachers are motivated to teach overseas by a diverse range of factors, relating to professional ambitions and personal circumstances. In addition, they share many common characteristics and fall into distinct categories: globetrotters (overseas-hire expatriates); locals (host-country nationals); accompanying spouses (short-term local-hire expatriates); and settlers (long-term local-hire expatriates). As personal circumstances change, so does the category. It seems that more experienced teachers are motivated by different factors, and there was a suggestion of a correlation between years of experience and length of stay in each school. It was also found that around 70% of international teachers originate from just four nations - the UK, USA, Australia and Canada – and that, despite such high levels of teacher emigration, none of the four countries seem to systematically monitor where their teachers go once they are qualified, or indeed, why they leave the country to teach overseas. There was a similar lack of information in individual international schools, with demographic information such as teacher age, nationality and length of stay commonly only being recorded for the current school year and rarely being monitored over a period of time.

There was some discussion early in this thesis of the validity of the concept of an 'ideal' international teacher and it seemed unlikely that one teacher profile could match the diverse profiles of individual international schools. After investigation of the traits of effective teachers, however, it is the conclusion of this research that in fact this may be more likely than was initially envisaged. While it may be too much to claim that there is only one ideal profile, the evidence shows that there is certainly a high degree of

agreement on the knowledge, skills and characteristics that are considered most important for effective teachers. This agreement encompasses the literature from different sectors of education and different nations, as well as the opinions of parents, students, administrators and teachers from across a wide range of international schools.

The key issues

Despite the unique profile of each international school, the literature also revealed a high degree of agreement on several common issues facing international teachers: they were generally unfamiliar with the concept of international education, and ignorant of educational systems and practices worldwide; they had limited skills in dealing with diverse student learning characteristics and cross-cultural issues; they had only superficial understanding of multilingualism, often consisting of misconceptions that had potentially serious consequences for student learning; they were unprepared to deal with the stresses caused by transition and mobility, either their own or that of students and parents; they lacked knowledge and skills to infuse international perspectives into what and how they taught; and finally, they needed to develop the art of conscious reflection to the higher levels demanded by the intense international contexts in which they were working.

Collaboration between international and national systems

The key issues identified - the *international context of education*; *diverse student characteristics*; *multiculturalism*; *multilingualism*; *transition*; *internationalising curriculum*; and *teacher reflection* - affect both national and international education and both sectors have relevant expertise and valuable perspectives to offer. Yet this research concludes that there has been little collaboration between the two, although there are some indications that this is changing as increasing numbers of national schools worldwide adopt international curriculum frameworks, such as those of the International Baccalaureate Organization.

This need for collaboration is illustrated by a brief reminder of the issues. Central to the first issue is the very identity of international education, international teachers and international students and the difficulties of defining what does and does not constitute 'international'. This research takes an inclusive approach, concluding that, rather than using tangible, quantifiable components such as numbers of nationalities or languages represented, international education can better be defined by reference to more abstract and qualitative ideological characteristics such as the internationally-minded students it seeks to develop. By such definitions, many national schools would seem to be more international than those with international in their names. The issues of diverse student characteristics, multiculturalism and multilingualism are clearly also common to both national and international education, and again, the lines are blurred between the two sectors, with levels of diversity and numbers of languages spoken in many inner-city national schools far exceeding those in international schools. If global mobility and rural-urban migration continue to increase as predicted, issues of transition are likely to become as important in national schools as they currently are in international schools. Similarly, with the issue of internationalising curriculum: while this is considered the norm in international schools it is still considered optional by most national schools. As government strategies begin to take effect, however, national schools will increasingly be compelled to internationalise what and how they teach, and collaboration between the two sectors can only help this process. Indeed, collaboration is central to the final

issue of teacher reflection and the redefining of a teacher's professional role as a complex ongoing process of development rather than a simple checklist of competences.

Teacher education programmes

The research also sought to examine the extent to which the training international teachers received prepared them for teaching in international schools. In the light of the common agreement on the traits of effective teachers, together with consideration of the key issues highlighted, investigation of what training teachers deemed important and what training they had received showed that most teacher education programmes are failing to prepare teachers adequately for international school contexts. There was clear recognition by teachers of the importance of specific training relating to the key issues they face in their multilingual, multicultural classrooms and an equally clear mismatch between the training they deemed important and the actual training they had received.

Even in the best cases, only 20% of teachers had received training and in the worst cases, the figure was less than 5%. This mismatch was also reflected in the literature from national systems, with urgent calls for internationalising of teacher education prevalent across a wide range of countries. A subsequent review of teacher education programmes in the four countries generating most international teachers revealed some good but isolated examples of internationally-orientated courses. It is therefore the strong conclusion of this research that teacher education must be critically reviewed and radically updated to catch up with the needs of schools and students.

Seven domains of knowledge and skills – developing a model

Through a synthesis of literature, survey data and anecdotal evidence relating to the key issues, the traits of effective teachers and the most important aspects of training, seven domains of knowledge and skills were identified that are deemed essential for effective international teachers. These domains formed the base for the development of a comprehensive model of training that addresses the key issues in international education. When this research began it was not clear whether such a model was feasible, given the diversity of international schools and international teachers. The evidence shows, however, that despite this diversity, there are common traits, common issues and common training needs and it is my conclusion therefore that a common model of training can and should be implemented.

The model proposed here aims to include international teachers in the broadest sense, open not only to teachers already working in international schools but also to those planning to do so and those in national schools wishing to be more international in outlook. It addresses the common issues identified through seven Standards in Internationalism and an initial Foundation Course, but also allows for individual teacher's needs through the professional Record of Achievement portfolio, compiled over several years and documenting development in each of the seven domains.

Preliminary outcomes of this research have already generated successful components of the model: an introductory course for teachers new to international education (Becoming an International Educator) has been running successfully for several years; the Foundation Course is being trialled with national schools in Victoria, Australia; and the European Council for International Schools' certificate programme is available to experienced international teachers. Interest from organisations such as the British Council, the National Association of Independent Schools and the Ministry of Education in Victoria, as well as from several universities in the UK, USA and

Australia, lead to the hope that the model might also be applied successfully within national systems as well as in the international sector. A further hope is that this might lead to closer collaboration between national and international sectors of education to the benefit of both.

Further research

It is believed that this thesis not only contributes to a better understanding of international teachers and the issues relating to their preparation for international education, but also points to several significant areas for further research.

It has been predicted that the numbers of international schools will increase rapidly over the next decade, with a corresponding increase in the demand for international teachers. As such teachers become an increasingly scarce commodity (and we have seen evidence that they are already in short supply), their recruitment and retention will become increasingly specialised areas, with both international school administrators who seek to recruit and agencies who seek to supply needing to better understand their characteristics and motivations. For example, this research on the most important traits for international teachers would seem to provide valuable information for recruiters and teachers alike and could usefully generate further research investigating the extent to which such traits feature in the recruitment process.

This research has also pointed out the lack of recording and monitoring of teacher mobility and this too raises several questions warranting further investigation, for example: Are schools becoming more or less internationally diverse in their hiring? Are they hiring more or less British / Australian / American / Canadian teachers? Are teachers staying for longer or shorter periods in individual schools? Are there changes in what teachers are looking for in schools?

Concern at lack of collaboration between international and national sectors of education has also been highlighted, suggesting the need for initiatives that draw on the experience of both sectors, for example, research that showcases good practice in internationalising curriculum.

The review of training available was undertaken specifically for the four countries generating most international teachers and a geographically more extensive review would be valuable. The heightened awareness of internationalism that became apparent during the research period already seems to be having tangible effects on school programmes. It can be assumed, therefore, that similar effects will also ultimately be seen in teacher education programmes and it will be important to monitor these and assess their impact on teacher preparation.

Finally, the model itself generates several areas of potential further investigation, both generically, in terms of the concept it represents, and specifically, in terms of the procedures, practices and standards it proposes. Its success will need to be measured initially in the international sector at which it is primarily aimed, but also its potential for application in national systems encouraged and monitored.

During the research period the world has changed significantly. Increased awareness of globalisation and its attendant issues and opportunities has focused the attention of governments and educational organisations firmly on internationalism. In the UK, USA,

Australia and Canada, the countries generating most international teachers, it is an expectation that schools will internationalise what and how they teach, aiming to develop students who are global citizens, and their key resources for doing so are their teachers. Teachers have clearly identified a need for better preparation for the key issues they face in multicultural, multilingual classrooms and it is envisaged that the model proposed can help meet that need by providing the structure for comprehensive, systematic programmes of professional development. In the words of Ben-Perez (2000) 'When teaching changes, can teacher education be far behind?'

APPENDIX (i)

SURVEY 01

International teacher training

Initial teacher survey - questionnaire



Initial teacher survey – ECIS annual conference – November 2001	
Nationality	
Gender	
Years of teaching experience	
Years of overseas teaching experience	
Currently teaching in	Previously taught in
State school in home country	State school in home country
Independent school in home country	Independent school in home country
International school in home country	International school in home country
International school in other country	International school in other country
National school in other country	National school in other country
What influenced you to teach overseas? Tick any of the following factors that apply to you and if possible, indicate the one that was the major influence:	
Mixed-nationality parents	
Returning to family roots	
Mobile / expatriate family	
International school experience as a child	
Moved with partner's job - voluntary move	
Moved with partner's job - company dictated	
Moved to join partner in his / her home country	
Following example of friend - teacher	
Following example of friend - non-teacher	
Following example of family member – teacher	
Following example of family member – non-teacher	
New start after relationship difficulties	
Family bereavement	
Boredom	
Seeking partner	
Better salary package	
Career advancement	
Better opportunities e.g. in particular subject	
Looking for adventure	
Interested in travel	
Better climate	
Better education system	
Different education system	
Spread the word on a particular type of education	
Missionary work	
Work with aid agency	
Voluntary work	
Other...	



APPENDIX (ii)

SURVEY 01 Notes to surveyees

Who I am

Lesley Snowball

Head of Lower School / Deputy Director, International School of Amsterdam

PhD student, University of Bath

Purpose of survey

initial stages of PhD research into teacher training for teachers in international schools

investigating how well prepared teachers are for international contexts

initially interested in why teachers teach internationally

Logistics

survey will take about 5 minutes

needs you to tick any factors that affected your decision to move into international education

if possible identify one main factor

APPENDIX (iii)

SURVEY 02

International teacher training

Traits of an effective teacher



Teacher traits survey	
Nationality	
Gender	
Years of teaching experience	
Years of overseas teaching experience	
Currently teaching in	Previously taught in
<input type="radio"/> State school in home country	<input type="radio"/> State school in home country
<input type="radio"/> Independent school in home country	<input type="radio"/> Independent school in home country
<input type="radio"/> International school in home country	<input type="radio"/> International school in home country
<input type="radio"/> International school in other country	<input type="radio"/> International school in other country
<input type="radio"/> National school in other country	<input type="radio"/> National school in other country

Please choose the 3 traits that you feel are most important in an effective teacher

- ☐ differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles
- ☐ equal opportunities awareness
- ☐ gender sensitivity
- ☐ cultural sensitivity
- ☐ transition sensitivity
- ☐ adaptable classroom management style
- ☐ efficient student assessment
- ☐ ICT proficient
- ☐ pedagogical understanding (how students learn)
- ☐ subject knowledge with a world view
- ☐ language acquisition and development
- ☐ open to new ideas and multiple perspectives
- ☐ independent
- ☐ calm and patient in dealing with different systems
- ☐ financially astute



APPENDIX (iv)

SURVEY 02 / SPANISH

International teacher training

Traits of an effective teacher



Teacher traits survey	
Nationality	
Gender	
Years of teaching experience	
Years of overseas teaching experience	
Currently teaching in	Previously taught in
<input type="radio"/> State school in home country	<input type="radio"/> State school in home country
<input type="radio"/> Independent school in home country	<input type="radio"/> Independent school in home country
<input type="radio"/> International school in home country	<input type="radio"/> International school in home country
<input type="radio"/> International school in other country	<input type="radio"/> International school in other country
<input type="radio"/> National school in other country	<input type="radio"/> National school in other country

<p>Please choose the 3 traits that you feel are most important in an effective teacher</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles enseñanza diferenciada para diversos estilos de aprendizaje <input type="radio"/> equal opportunities awareness conciencia sobre igualdad de oportunidades <input type="radio"/> gender sensitivity sensibilidad hacia el género <input type="radio"/> cultural sensitivity sensibilidad hacia las culturas <input type="radio"/> transition sensitivity sensibilidad hacia movilidad <input type="radio"/> adaptable classroom management style estilo adaptable de organización del aula <input type="radio"/> efficient student assessment evaluación eficaz de los estudiantes <input type="radio"/> ICT proficient proficiencia en uso de tecnología de información y comunicación <input type="radio"/> pedagogical understanding (how students learn) comprensión pedagógica (cómo aprenden los estudiantes) <input type="radio"/> subject knowledge with a world view conocimiento de un tema con una visión amplia <input type="radio"/> language acquisition and development adquisición y desarrollo de lenguaje <input type="radio"/> open to new ideas and multiple perspectives abierto a nuevas ideas y múltiples perspectivas <input type="radio"/> independent independientes <input type="radio"/> calm and patient in dealing with different systems tranquilo y paciente frente a sistemas diferentes <input type="radio"/> financially astute astuto para o en finanzas 	<p>Escoja 3 características que considere más importantes en un profesor eficaz</p>
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APPENDIX (v)

SURVEY 02 Parents and students

International teacher training

Traits of an effective teacher

☐ Parent ☐ Student



Teacher traits survey

Please choose the 3 traits that you feel are most important in an effective teacher

Escoja 3 características que considere más importantes en un profesor eficaz

- ☐ differentiated teaching for diverse learning styles
enseñanza diferenciada para diversos estilos de aprendizaje
- ☐ equal opportunities awareness
conciencia sobre igualdad de oportunidades
- ☐ gender sensitivity
sensibilidad hacia el género
- ☐ cultural sensitivity
sensibilidad hacia las culturas
- ☐ transition sensitivity
sensibilidad hacia movilidad
- ☐ adaptable classroom management style
estilo adaptable de organización del aula
- ☐ efficient student assessment
evaluación eficaz de los estudiantes
- ☐ ICT proficient
proficiencia en uso de tecnología de información y comunicación
- ☐ pedagogical understanding (how students learn)
comprensión pedagógica (como aprenden los estudiantes)
- ☐ subject knowledge with a world view
conocimiento de un tema con una visión amplia
- ☐ language acquisition and development
adquisición y desarrollo de lenguaje
- ☐ open to new ideas and multiple perspectives
abierto a nuevas ideas y múltiples perspectivas
- ☐ independent
independientes
- ☐ calm and patient in dealing with different systems
tranquilo y paciente frente a sistemas diferentes
- ☐ financially astute
astuto para o en finanzas



APPENDIX (vi)

SURVEY 02 Notes for surveyees

Survey 02 Traits of Effective Teachers

Who I am

Lesley Snowball

Head of Lower School / Deputy Director, International School of Amsterdam

PhD student, University of Bath

Purpose of survey

PhD research into how well prepared teachers are for international contexts
investigating teacher, parent, student and administrator perceptions of traits of
effective teachers

Logistics

survey will take about 15 minutes

asks for personal information about your educational background (not for parents or
students) to allow me to compare different types of schools, different lengths of
teaching service etc.

needs you to tick 3 most important traits from given list

APPENDIX (vii)
SURVEY 02 Letter to surveyees

Survey 02 Traits of Effective Teachers

Dear colleague,

My name is Lesley Snowball and I am the Head of Lower School / Deputy Director with the International School of Amsterdam in The Netherlands.

I am also a PhD student with the University of Bath carrying out research into how well prepared teachers are for international contexts. I would like your help in investigating the traits of effective teachers and would like you to complete a survey.

It will take about 15 minutes to complete. It asks for personal information about your educational background (not for parents or students) to allow me to compare different types of schools, different lengths of teaching service etc. Then it needs you to tick 3 most important traits from the list.

Your help is much appreciated.
Sincerely,
Lesley Snowball

Lesley F. Snowball tel/fax: +31 20 297 344829, email:snowballk@isa.nl
International School of Amsterdam, PhD student with the University of Bath

APPENDIX (viii)

SURVEY 03

International teacher training

Training rating scale



How do you rate training in this area?		details of any training you have had (e.g. initial teacher training, school inset, school orientation, post-graduate...)
Comparative Languages		
The Multilingual Classroom		
The Multicultural Classroom		
Students in Transition		
Introduction to International Education		
Intercultural Understanding		
Teachers in Transition		
World Arts		
World Current Affairs		
World History		
World Geography		
Personal Foreign Language Study		
Other areas?		



APPENDIX (ix)

SURVEY 03 Notes for surveyees

Survey 03 Training Rating survey

Who I am

Lesley Snowball

Head of Lower School / Deputy Director, International School of Amsterdam

PhD student, University of Bath

Purpose of survey

PhD research into how well prepared teachers are for international contexts
investigating how important teachers rate training in different areas of
internationalism and what training teachers have in these same areas

Logistics

survey will take 20-30 minutes

needs you to:

- (i) rate each type of training as Very Important, Important, Quite Important or Not at all Important
- (ii) indicate any training you have had of that type

APPENDIX (x)
SURVEY 03 Letter to surveyees

Survey 03 Training Rating survey

Dear colleague,

My name is Lesley Snowball and I am the Head of Lower School / Deputy Director with the International School of Amsterdam in The Netherlands.

I am also a PhD student with the University of Bath carrying out research into how well prepared teachers are for international contexts. I would like your help in investigating how important teachers rate training in different areas of internationalism and what training teachers have in these same areas and would like you to complete a survey.

It will take 20-30 minutes to complete and needs you to:

- (i) rate each type of training as Very Important, Important, Quite Important or Not at all Important
- (ii) indicate any training you have had of that type

Your help is much appreciated.

Sincerely,

Lesley Snowball

Lesley F. Snowball tel/fax: +31 20 297 344829, email:snowballk@isa.nl
International School of Amsterdam, PhD student with the University of Bath

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